



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

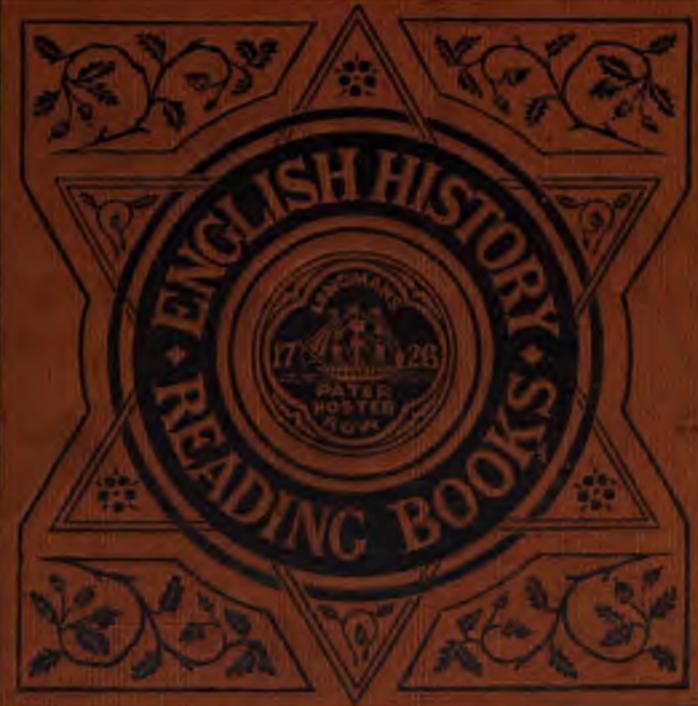
We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

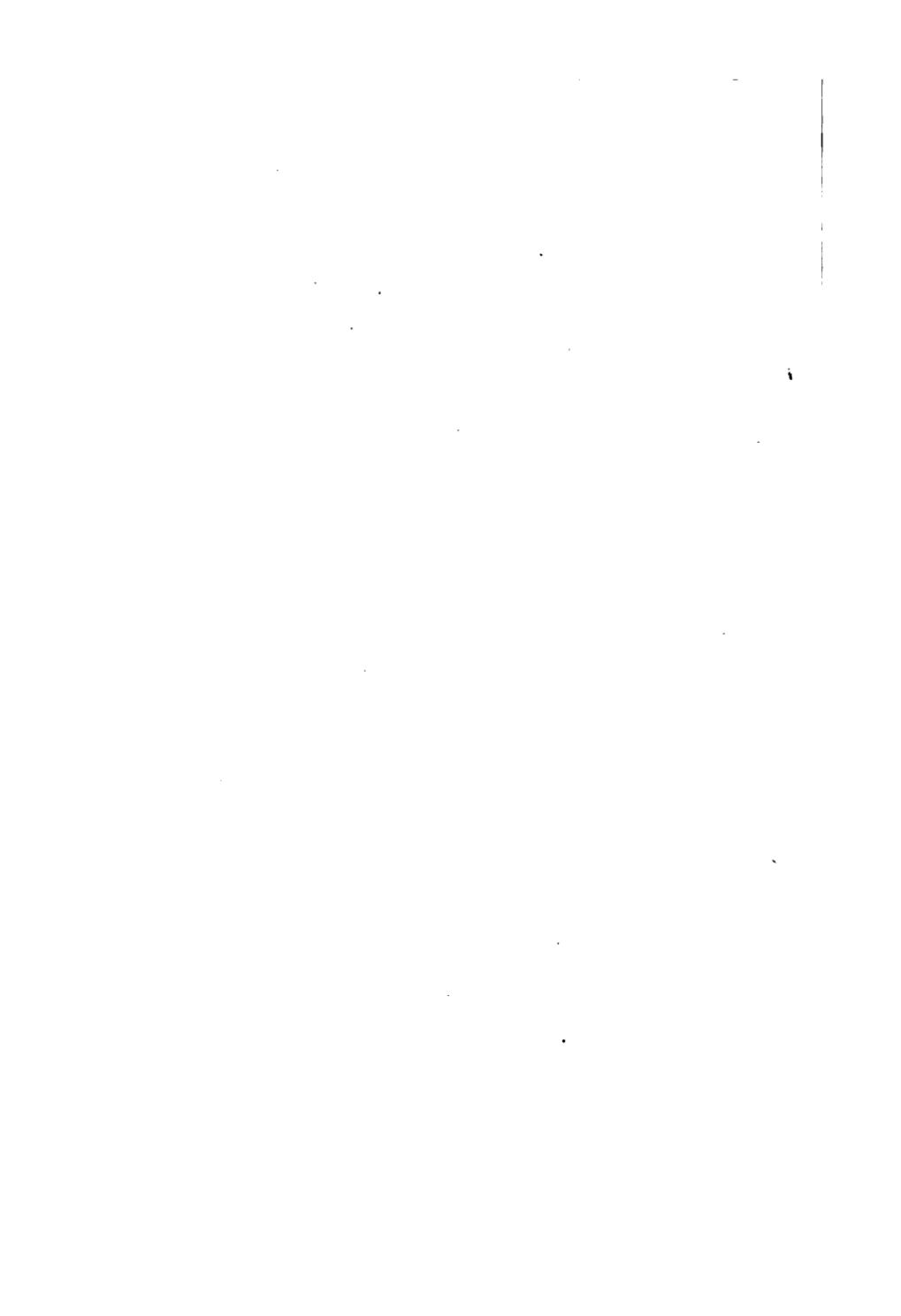
ILLUSTRATED
ENGLISH HISTORY
PART I. BC. 55 - A.D. 1485.



BY
S.R. GARDINER.







English History Reading Books

ILLUSTRATED
ENGLISH HISTORY

PART I.

B.C. 55—A.D. 1485

BY

S. R. GARDINER

HONORARY STUDENT OF CHRIST CHURCH, AND PROFESSOR OF MODERN
HISTORY AT KING'S COLLEGE, LONDON

LONDON
LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.

1883

228. f. 53

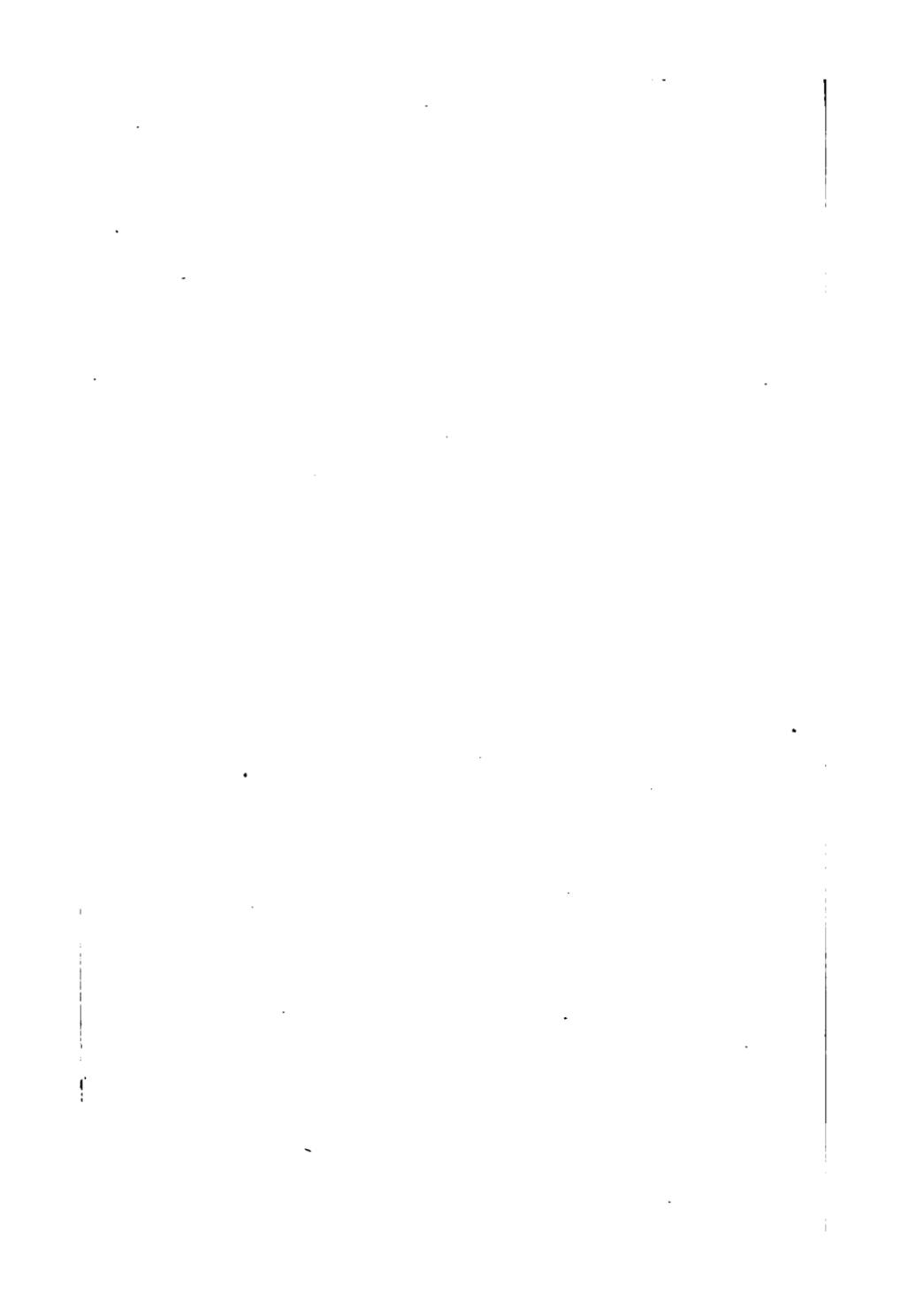
All rights reserved



LONDON : PRINTED BY
SPOTTISWOODE AND CO., NEW-STREET SQUARE
AND PARLIAMENT STREET

P R E F A C E.

THE object of this little book is to attempt to tell the story of our country's history for young children. Important events have been given in fuller detail than is usual, so as to awaken an interest in them, though no story has been told simply because it is interesting—room having been made for this by omitting much that would be merely burdensome to the memory. Very few dates have been inserted, with the exception of those of the kings' reigns. For the useful Analysis and Notes which have been added to the present edition, I have to express my warm thanks to Mr. T. PARRY, of Liverpool, from whom I have received great assistance in revising the sheets as they passed through the press.



ILLUSTRATED
OUTLINE OF ENGLISH HISTORY.
FIRST PERIOD.

CHAPTER I.
THE BRITONS AND THE ROMANS.



CROMLECH.

1. **The Britons.**—Nearly two thousand years ago, the island in which we live was called Britain. The people who lived in it were called Britons. They could not read or

write ; so that, as they did not write any books to tell us about themselves, nothing is known about their history, till some people who could write visited the country. There have, however, been found in the tombs of some of them, pieces of pottery and other things which they used; and there are still to be found a few *cromlechs*, as they are called, made of huge



STONEHENGE.

pieces of rock set upright, with a flat piece to cover them; under which great men were buried; and which were once covered with earth, which has been taken away. Also, in one or two places, there were circles of enormous stones set up, with other stones lying across on the top, like the frame of a door. One of the most complete of those which remain, is at Stonehenge on Salisbury Plain. It

is supposed that these were used as temples. A great part of the country was uncultivated, and covered with wood. The people had cattle, and hunted the animals in the woods; but they also planted barley for food, and made baskets and pottery. Ships came all the way from the east end of the Mediterranean to buy tin in Cornwall.

2. Britain conquered by the Romans.—The first people who came here, and who could write down accounts of what they saw, were the Romans. Their chief city was Rome in Italy. They had conquered a great part of Europe, and part of Asia and of Africa. Fifty-five years before Christ, Julius Cæsar, a great Roman general, came with an army to Britain. He went back, and returned the next year. Afterwards he became emperor, or commander of all the Roman armies, and ruler of the Romans and of all the people whom they had conquered. About a hundred years later, rather more than eighteen hundred years ago, another Roman emperor sent an army to Britain; and after some little time all south Britain, as far as the Firths of Clyde and Forth, was conquered.

3. The Roman Government of Britain.—Before the Romans came, the Britons lived in

small tribes, each with a Chief of its own, and each one often fighting with its neighbours, like the Zulus in Africa now. The Romans did not kill the people they conquered, or drive them out. They treated them very much in the same way as the English, in our own time, have treated the people of India. They made good roads, and built towns, and forced the people to live at peace. Wherever we find such a name as *street*, or anything like it, as Chester-le-Street, Stratton or Stratford, we know there was once a Roman road. Wherever we find *chester* or *caster*, as in Winchester or Doncaster, we know that there was once a Roman garrison. The Romans were great builders, and the remains of some of their fortifications are still to be seen. The streets of the towns swarmed with citizens. The richer people built comfortable country houses for themselves to live in. Corn was grown in abundance; and, besides the tin mines of Cornwall, there were mines of lead and iron. Christian missionaries arrived, and the people became Christian. In some parts the Latin language was spoken; but the conquered people, for the most part, continued to address one another in their own tongue. On the whole, the Romans tried to rule justly.

They encouraged trade, and made good laws in their dominions on the Continent, as well as in Britain, so that every man might hold peaceably what belonged to him. All this was possible, just as it is possible in India, because there was peace in all the lands belonging to the Romans. There were soldiers at the frontier of the empire, to prevent the fierce Germans from bursting in to rob and kill. But inside the Roman frontier, no tribe was allowed to fight with another.

4. The Romans leave Britain.—The Roman rule in Britain lasted for about three hundred and fifty years. Then the Roman army went away. The Romans had been attacked by their enemies; and they wanted their soldiers to come home to defend Italy. The Britons were left to take care of themselves. Unfortunately for them, the Romans had not taught them how to fight. They and their fathers had lived so long in peace, that they did not know how to keep off an enemy. They were attacked by wild and fierce tribes—the Scots and Picts. At that time the Scots lived in Ireland; but many of them afterwards crossed the sea to the part of Northern Britain where Argyleshire is now. Later on these settlers gave the name of Scotland, or the land of

the Scots, to the northern part of our island. The Picts lived to the north of the Firths of Clyde and Forth before the Scots came. These Scots and Picts came amongst the Britons, plundering and killing. The Britons had always been defended by the Roman army ; and, feeling quite helpless, they wrote to the Roman general to bring his soldiers back. The general did as he was asked, drove off the Scots and Picts, and then went away for ever. The Scots and Picts returned. A people which cannot defend itself, is likely to meet with no mercy.

CHAPTER II.

THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.

1. Coming of the English.—The Britons spoke a language which was the same as that which some of the Welsh, who are descended from them, still speak. The Scots and Picts spoke a language not very different. Beyond the North Sea was a different people, living on both sides of the mouth of the river Elbe. They were called Angles, and Saxons, and Jutes ; and they spoke a language which was

German, though it was not quite the same as that spoken in Germany now. It is called Low German ; and was more like the Dutch



language. The Angles, and Saxons, and Jutes, were as fierce as the Scots and Picts. They had small vessels, and were hardy sailors. They came across the sea, plundering, and

burning, and slaying, like the Scots and Picts. In the year 449, some Jutes, under two chiefs, named Hengist and Horsa, landed in the Isle of Thanet. Other chiefs, with bands of armed followers, landed in other parts of the island. They did not bring law and order for the Britons, as the Romans had done ; but they slew or drove them away, and divided their land amongst themselves. They did not care to live in towns, as they had always been accustomed to live in the country. So they either burnt the towns and left them desolate, or else suffered them to decay. At a later time, they too learned to live in towns and to trade.

2. Fate of a Roman Town near Pevensey.

—A curious example of the way in which the towns were treated, is to be found on the coast of Sussex, between Hastings and Eastbourne. There is to be seen the spot, where once was the flourishing Roman city of Anderida. The Roman walls are still there, firmly built with that mortar which the Romans knew how to make, and which is harder than even the stones which it binds together. Inside is a green flat space, with no trace of any building, except in one corner, where are the ruins of a castle, built there long after the days of the Romans. The

Saxon conqueror could not destroy the city wall. He destroyed the houses inside it. He liked better to live outside. Two little villages in front of the old gate of the City tell us, by their names, the language of the people who built and inhabited them. To the West is West Ham—that is to say, the western home of some settler whose name we do not know. To the East is Pevensey, where, no doubt, another of the conquerors fixed his abode.

3. Gradual Conquest of Britain.—These Saxons, and Jutes, and Angles, did not conquer the country all at once. Like the Britons, before the Romans came, they did not form one people, but lived separately, each tribe by itself. Many of our counties bear the names of these tribes. The East Saxons lived in Essex, the Middle Saxons in Middlesex, the South Saxons in Sussex. At first the conquest was not very difficult. The south-eastern part of England had been more civilised by the Romans than the rest of the country. It was richer, because, being nearer to the Continent, the people who lived in it traded with those who lived beyond the sea. Its inhabitants were also less warlike than those who lived in the

Western hills, so that the conquest was easiest here. In the South-east there had been formed four small kingdoms,—*Kent*, answering to the modern county, *Sussex*, including the modern Sussex and Surrey, *Essex*, including the modern Essex and Middlesex, and *East Anglia*, including Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridgeshire. In the north and west the struggle was harder ; and the conquerors found it necessary to join their small tribes together, in order that they might bring a stronger force against the enemy. The three larger kingdoms were those of *Northumberland*, or the land North of the Humber as far as the Clyde, of *Mercia*, occupying the centre of the country, and of *Wessex*, the land of the West Saxons, occupying the country westward from the border of Sussex. These three went on fighting with the Britons. In 128 years of conflict, they had pushed their frontier as far as the Pennine range, and thence south-eastward to a spot near Bedford, from which point, it twisted about irregularly, till it reached the English Channel, about half way between the mouth of the Exe and Portland. After some further years of struggle, the line went from the Pennine Hills southward through the Mendip



Hills to the English Channel. Cumberland, Lancashire, Devon, and Cornwall were subdued at a later time. Wales remained independent for many hundred years. In these later and Western conquests, many more Britons were saved alive, than in the East.

4. **The English People and their Kings.**—The invaders came to be usually known as *Angles* or *English*; though they were sometimes called *Anglo-Saxons*, that is to say, Angles and Saxons. The country was called *England*, or the land of the Angles. Each tribe had over it a King; but the King did not do as he pleased. The freemen, who made up the tribe, met in council and decided whether they would go to war or not. When a King died, they chose a new one out of his family; but nobody then thought it right that the eldest son of the last King should always reign after his father. A King had to command in battle, as well as to sit at the head of the meetings of the freemen. If the eldest son of the King were a child, or a coward, or incapable of ruling from ill health, or from any other cause, the tribe passed him over altogether; and chose his uncle or his cousin to be King.

5. **Treatment of Criminals.**—At these

meetings of the people, those who had been wronged were listened to. There were no regular judges as there are now. If a man committed a murder, there was no idea that it concerned anybody, except the relations of the murdered man, to punish him. Some time before the English came here, the custom had been, that the nearest relation of the murdered man considered it to be his duty to kill the murderer ; as, amongst the ancient Hebrews, had been the duty of the avenger of blood. Then the relations of the murderer who had been killed, considered it to be their duty to kill the man who had killed the murderer. So the blood feud, as it was called, went on from generation to generation ; some one member of one family being always on the look-out to kill a member of the other. At last, however, people grew tired of this constant slaughter ; and the custom grew up, that, when a man was murdered, the murderer came to the relations of the murdered man, and gave them some money to let him off. They brought the money before the meeting of the people ; and then peace was made between the murderer, and the relations of the man whom he had killed. If a thief was detected, he had to pay money in the same way.

6. The Religion of the English.—Such an arrangement as this was possible, because the English did not think that it was at all wrong to kill a man. They were heathens ; and their religion taught them that men were the better, not for being tender and merciful, but for being strong and bold. Their gods, they thought, showed favour to them if they were fierce and masterful ; and would only give them happiness after their death, if they died fighting. They thought that the dead warriors spent their time all day, in another world, in fighting for amusement.

7. Compurgation and Ordeal.—In other respects the mode of dealing with criminals in those days differed from ours. There were no lawyers and judges, as there are now, trained to find out when a man has committed a crime which no one has seen him do. When, therefore, any one was accused of a murder or a theft, he was asked whether he could bring a number of honest men, who lived near him, to swear that he was innocent. If he could, he was considered to be innocent. This was called *Compurgation* ; because the men joined in purging him, or declaring him to be clean from the fault. If he could not get the men to swear for him, he had yet another chance.

He might try what was called the *Ordeal*, or judgment of God. He had to walk blindfold over red-hot ploughshares ; or dip his hand into boiling water. If he missed the ploughshares, or, if his hand did not appear to be hurt after three days, he was declared to be innocent. Probably scarcely anybody ever got off in this way ; but, as only those tried it who had failed to find men who would swear for them, they would all be considered to have bad characters, because their neighbours distrusted them. For this reason, nobody would feel much surprise, if almost every accused person who tried the ordeal failed.

CHAPTER III.

THE CONVERSION OF ENGLAND.

1. **A Missionary sent to England by the Pope.**—Soon after the Roman soldiers left Britain, the Roman Empire came to an end in the West of Europe. Its place was taken by a number of German nations who had conquered it. These conquerors, however, were

not heathens like the English who conquered Britain ; and the Bishop of Rome had a great influence over them. He was generally looked up to, and was called the Pope; that is to say, the Papa, or Father of Christians. About 150 years after the English began to come into Britain, there was a Pope named Gregory. The English conquerors were heathens. Long before Gregory was Pope, he had seen some fair-haired boys from Northumberland in the slave-market at Rome. He had asked what nation they were of. He was told that they were Angles. ‘Not Angles,’ he said, ‘but Angels.’ ‘Who is their King?’ he further asked. ‘His name,’ said the merchant, who wanted to sell the boys, ‘is Ella.’ ‘Allelujah,’ answered Gregory, ‘shall be sung in the land of Ella.’ Many years afterwards, when he had become Pope, he remembered his meeting with the boys, and sent Augustine as a missionary to convert the English.

2. Augustine at Canterbury.—In 597 Augustine landed, on his mission of love, in the Isle of Thanet,—where Hengist and Horsa had landed 148 years before, to ravage and to slay. Followed by a band of missionaries, he made his way to the home of the King of Kent, where now is the city of Canterbury, with its

grand cathedral rising above the roofs of the houses. Ethelbert, the King, who had married



GREGORY AND ENGLISH SLAVES.

a Christian wife from beyond the sea, allowed him to preach to the people. After a time, he and the men of Kent became Christians. From

Canterbury, the gospel spread over the southern part of England, and Augustine became its first Archbishop, presiding over the other Bishops who occupied the sees which were gradually created to the South of the Humber. The Bishops of the districts North of the Humber were made dependent upon the Archbishop of York.

3. The Conversion of the North.—The South of England had learned Christianity from a man sent from Rome. The North learned it from a man sent from Iona, a little island off the west coast of Scotland, where was settled a colony of Irish Christians, who were zealously eager to preach the gospel. From Iona came Aidan; who settled himself in Holy Island, off the coast of Northumberland, and sent forth swarms of preachers. Whether the preachers came from Rome, or from Iona, they taught much the same lesson. They taught men to be merciful and gentle ; to reverence Christ and His gospel of love, in the place of the heathen gods. Men welcomed them, because they thought it was better to be meek and forgiving, than to be always fighting and quarrelling. Even when, as often happened, they did not give up fighting themselves, they respected men who would not return a blow,

and who were always kind to the poor and the sick. One of the kings once gathered his great men together, and asked them whether they would be Christians. ‘So seems the life of man, O King,’ answered one of the chiefs, ‘as a sparrow’s flight through the hall, when a man is sitting at meat in winter-tide, with the warm fire lighted on the hearth, but the chill rain-storm without. The sparrow flies in at one door, and tarries for a moment in the light and heat of the hearth-fire ; and then flying forth from the other, vanishes into the wintry darkness whence it came. So tarries for a moment the life of man in our sight ; but, what is before it, what after it, we know not. If this new teaching tell us aught certainly of these, let us follow it.’

4. The Monks.—The new teaching was gradually adopted. But the mass of men did not change their nature because they had learned to pray to Christ. It was much easier to go to church, or to repeat prayers, than it was to live as the gospel taught men to live. Most Englishmen remained as fond of fighting as they were before. There were some, however, who tried hard to make themselves better; to forgive, instead of taking vengeance ; and to live at peace, instead of being constantly at

war. They therefore lived together in houses which were called *monasteries*. Men who lived together in these monasteries were called *monks*, and women who lived together were called *nuns*. They lived very hard lives,—not eating or drinking more than was quite necessary, and praying often, as well as working with their hands to procure their daily food. The ruins of many of these monasteries are to be found in England; and people sometimes say that the monks took care to choose very pretty places to live in. The truth is, that they did not care whether the places were pretty or not. They wanted to get away far from the temptations which were to be found where other men lived in crowds. They went to places as far as possible from the dwellings of men; where there was a stream of water to give them drink, and trees to give them wood to burn, and a little fertile ground on which to grow corn to eat. Green grass and corn, with trees and a river, look very pretty now to people who visit them on a holiday; but those who had to live amongst them in those old days, had hard work to do to get food enough to live on in such a country, and had little time, even if they had had the taste, to admire beautiful scenery.

CHAPTER IV.

THE UNION OF ENGLAND.

1. What Egbert did.—The lesson taught by the monks, was one which men are slow to learn. The whole of England was full of bloodshed and confusion. The Kings were perpetually fighting with one another. Sometimes one, sometimes another, would have the upper hand. At last Egbert, the King of the West Saxons, subdued all the others. He was not King of all England in the sort of way that Victoria is Queen of all England. Some of the separate kingdoms still managed their own affairs. But they all looked up to Egbert, and agreed not to fight against him or against each other any more.

2. The Coming of the Danes.—Very likely, if this had been all, they would have separated again as soon as Egbert died. But during the lifetime of Egbert a new enemy appeared. A people who were called *Danes* here, and were called *Northmen* or *Normans* on the Continent, came from Denmark and Norway. They were very much what the ancestors of the English had been, 350 years before, when

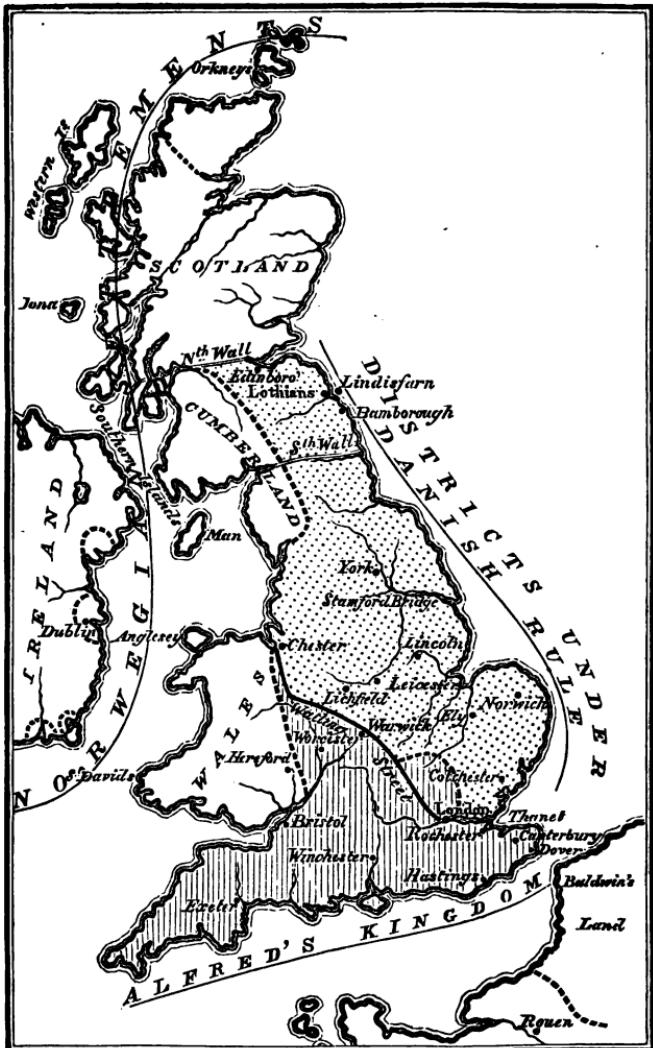
they came with Hengist and Horsa. They swept over the sea in light vessels, sailed up the mouths of the rivers, burnt, slew, and plundered ; and then sailed away before they could be caught. The monasteries were their especial prey ; for they knew that wealth would be stored up there. The monks had once been poor, but people who reverenced them had brought them presents,—not for themselves, but for their churches. They had now gold and silver chalices and crosses, and their books were often bound in jewelled bindings. The Danes knew, too, that the monks could not fight. They killed the monks like sheep, set fire to the monasteries, and carried off everything that was valuable in them. In some places on the Continent a new petition was added to the Litany : ‘From the fury of the Northmen, Good Lord deliver us !’

3. **The Fight against the Danes.**—Egbert, and his sons and grandsons after him, did their best to resist the sea-robbers. Sometimes they won victories ; sometimes they were defeated. But, on the whole, the sea-robbers pressed on. They were no longer content to plunder and sail away. They came in swarms, and tried to settle in the land, as the English had settled in it before. It seemed as if they would suc-

ceed, and as if all England would fall into the power of the Danes.

4. The First Year of Alfred the Great.—At last the Danes met their match. Alfred, the youngest and the noblest of the grandsons of Egbert, was chosen King on his elder brother's death. That brother had left a son, who would, in our time, have succeeded to the throne. But a warrior was wanted ; and the warrior-uncle was lawfully chosen, rather than the boy-nephew. Alfred was at first defeated, and driven to take refuge in Athelney ; which was then an island in the midst of the swamps of Somersetshire, across which the Great Western Railway now runs, with dry ground on each side. After some time, he came out, gathered his countrymen around him, defeated the Danes, and forced them to accept the Treaty of Wedmore.

5. Submission of the Danes to Alfred.—By the Treaty of Wedmore, in 878, England was divided into two parts, by a line which ran from the Thames, a little below London, to Chester on the Dee. To the south-west of this line the land was English. To the north-east it was Danish. The Danes had not indeed slaughtered all the English in their part, but they had taken the best lands, and



ENGLAND AS DIVIDED BY THE TREATY OF WEDMORE, 878.

they kept all power in their hands. The settlements of the Danes are known by the termination *-by* at the ends of names of places. Such names as Grimsby or Kirkby tell us that a Dane once settled there. ‘By’ means the place where people lived; Grimsby is the living-place of Grim. Kirkby is the living-place by the Kirk or church.

6. Alfred's Government.—Alfred seemed to be worse off than his grandfather had been. The Danes acknowledged that he was their over-lord or superior, but they were not likely to be very obedient. He had under him, really, only a piece of England instead of the whole. Yet, that piece was better for him than the whole would have been. In the part that was under him were three of the old kingdoms—Wessex, Sussex, and Kent—a small part of Essex, and half of Mercia. Even if he had been only an ordinary man, we may be sure that these districts would have clung to him, for fear of falling into the hands of the Danes. Very few men, however, are as great as Alfred was. People who do not know very much about men, are apt to think a man is great because he has done something very great. Those who know most about men, know that the best and greatest men are those

who not only do great things, but know exactly what they cannot do, and so do not try to do what is impossible, though it may seem easy. Alfred was one of these men. He discovered at once that he could not subdue the Danes in the North ; and he contented himself with defending his own part of the country. He set on foot a navy that the Danes might not attack him by sea. He did what was better than this ; he tried his best to make the people better and wiser than they were before. He strove to deny himself as much as the monks did. But he did it, not by leaving the world, but by living in the world, and helping his people. No other King ever showed forth so well, in his own person, the truth of the saying, ‘He that would be first amongst you let him be the servant of all.’ Alfred was weak, and subject to a painful disease ; yet he gave himself no rest in doing good. He collected the best laws of his fore-fathers, added some of his own, and asked his people to accept them. He chose out the best and wisest men for his friends, and set them to teach others. He loved learning and books, not only because he wanted to know more himself, but because he wished to make his subjects know more. He translated books

which he thought it would do them good to read ; and, when he knew anything about the subject, that was not in the book itself, he put it into the translation. When he died he left behind him better laws, better education, a better and higher life altogether than his people had known before.

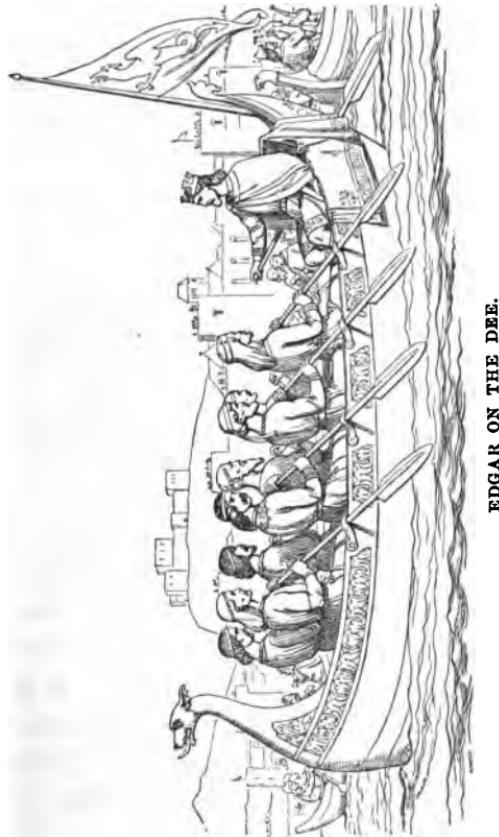
7. **The Submission of the Danes.**—The English of the South soon showed, that men who are better and wiser, are also stronger than the fierce untaught barbarian. Alfred's descendants who were kings after him,—his son Edward, his grandson Athelstan, his great-grandsons Edmund and Edred,—won, by a slow and steady course of victory, that northern England which Alfred had given up as beyond his power to conquer. In 954—seventy-six years after England had been divided by the Treaty of Wedmore—the process of reuniting it was completed by Edred. The English King came to rule over all England more completely than Egbert had done ; for Englishmen and Danes were alike subject to his government.

CHAPTER V.

THE ENGLISH AND THE DANISH KINGS.

1. **Edgar and Dunstan.**—For some years, the now united England was at peace. Edred's son Edgar, who reigned after the short rule of his brother Edwy, is called by the chroniclers 'The Peaceful.' He is said to have been rowed by eight kings on the river Dee. The man who really governed, in his name, was Archbishop Dunstan. He was the first man who ruled England without being a fighting man. The work he had to do was to be done with brains, more than with the sword. Dunstan had to keep England united, and to prevent the Danes and the English from quarrelling with one another. This would have been more difficult than it was, if the Danes and the English had been as different as Englishmen and Frenchmen. But they were very much alike ; and, though their languages were not the same, they were not so different that they could not easily learn to talk to one another. The Danes were ruder and less civilised than the English ; but they had already become Christians, and they might be

taught, as Englishmen had been taught, to live as Christians ought to live.



EDGAR ON THE DEE.

2. Dunstan and the Danes.—In trying to make the Danes and the English live peacefully together, Dunstan avoided one mistake

which it is very easy to fall into. Many people are very anxious to improve others, who do not know so much as themselves, or are not so good as themselves ; but they do not succeed, because they want everybody to do exactly as they do, and to think exactly as they think. Dunstan did not try to make the Danes exactly like the English. He wished the Danes to keep their own laws and customs, and the English to keep theirs.

3. Dunstan brings in Schoolmasters.—

Dunstan tried to unite men by teaching them to love what was true and beautiful. He was himself a lover of books, and music, and art. He was a great encourager of education. In the long wars, the English had forgotten much that their forefathers knew. Dunstan sent abroad for schoolmasters ; and nothing pleased him so much as to find a man who was fit to teach. If he encouraged the schoolmasters, he encouraged the monks as well. Monks, in those days, were not lazy, as they afterwards became. Bede, who many years before had written a history of the country, was a monk. The men who wrote the Chronicle,—that wonderful record in which the deeds of our forefathers were told in their own tongue,—were also monks.

4. **Ethelred the Unready.**—Edgar and Dunstan died ; and evil days came upon England. Edward, the next King, was murdered. Then came Ethelred, rightly named the *Unready*, or the man without counsel. Fresh Danes, from Denmark and Norway, came to plunder and conquer England. In some places resistance was made ; but the King did nothing to help the people who resisted. His only idea was to give the Danes plenty of money to go away. They went away ; and of course they came back again, and asked for more money to go away again.

5. **Elfheah the Martyr.**—There were brave men in England ; but the bravest was Elfheah, the Archbishop of Canterbury. He was taken prisoner by the Danes, and set in their midst as they were feasting. They asked him for money. He told them that he had none of his own to give them ; and that he would not force the poor people, on the estates belonging to him as archbishop, to pay money in order to save his own life. They grew so angry, that they pelted him with beef-bones to make him yield. He would not yield ; and at last they killed him with the hard bones. The English Church wisely counted him as a martyr and a saint. Long afterwards, one of his suc-

cessors, the pure and holy Anselm, was asked whether a man could really be a martyr who did not die for the faith. ‘Yes,’ he answered, ‘he who dies for righteousness dies for the faith.’

6. The Danish Conquest.—Brave men like Elfheah, or like others who fought and died, could not beat off the Danes unless they had a better King than Ethelred. The Danes this time wanted to conquer all England. They had a King, Swegen, at their head, who knew how to fight ; and when he died, his son Canute, who succeeded him, fought as well as his father. At last Ethelred died, and was succeeded by a brave and vigorous King, Edmund Ironsides. So fiercely did he fight with Canute, that the Danish King agreed to share England with the English King. Not long afterwards Edmund died, or was murdered, and Canute got the whole country.

7. The Reign of Canute.—Canute’s reign was like Edgar’s over again. Dane though he was, he let the English keep their own laws. He kept peace and established order with a strong hand. Though he was himself neither priest nor monk, he reverenced monks and priests as Dunstan had done. Once, when he was rowing on those broad waters of

the fens, since turned into rich pasture-land and corn-land, he heard the monks of Ely singing. He bade the boatman row to the shore, that he might listen to the song of praise and prayer. At another time he went on pilgrimage to Rome, that he might see the place which was reverenced through all the West of Europe as containing the burial-places of the Apostles Peter and Paul. Since the old cruel fighting-days of his youth were over, he had learnt gentleness and righteousness. He wrote a letter from Rome to his subjects. ‘I have vowed to God,’ he wrote, ‘to live a right life in all things ; to rule justly and piously my realms and subjects ; and to administer just judgment to all. If, heretofore, I have done aught beyond what was just, through headiness or negligence of youth, I am ready, with God’s help, to amend it utterly.’

8. *The Sons of Canute.*—Canute’s sons, who came after him, were not like their father. They were wild and headstrong young men ; and, when they died, Englishmen and Danes agreed to send beyond the sea for a son of Ethelred named Edward, who became King, and was afterwards known as Edward the Confessor,—a name given by

the Church to men of great piety, even when, as in Edward's case, piety was not accompanied by wisdom.

CHAPTER VI.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1. **The Normans in France.**—Edward had been brought up, in childhood, in his mother's country — Normandy. Many years before, the Normans—as the Danes were called on the Continent—had seized the part of France which is on both sides of the mouth of the Seine, just in the same way as the Danes had seized the North of England. There had been a treaty which, like the Treaty of Wedmore, allowed them to keep the country they had taken. Their Chief, Rollo, became Duke of the Normans. The Normans, after two or three generations, learned to speak French, and to live as Frenchmen lived. But they did not become subjects of the French King, in the way that the Danes in England became subjects of the English King. The French King was weak and could not conquer Nor-

mandy. The Norman duke treated him with all respect as his lord. Whenever a duke died, his successor acknowledged himself to be the French King's man, as was the phrase. He then knelt down ; and, placing his hands between the French King's hands, swore to be faithful to him. But, for all that, he did not obey him unless he chose to do so, but behaved as if he were an independent ruler.

2. Englishmen and Normans.—In Normandy, the duke had other men who were noblemen or gentlemen ; who had their lands from him, in the same way that he had his from the French King. They did homage to him, and swore to be faithful to him. These men were called knights, and fought on horseback ; and were so accustomed to ride, that once, when some knights came to England and quarrelled with some citizens of Dover, they got on horseback to attack men in their houses ; which seems a strange thing to do. They themselves, and the clergy of Normandy, were more intelligent, and cared more for reading and for art, than the English did. The English always fought on foot ; and only used horses to ride on to the place of battle, getting off when the fighting was to begin. If, however, the Norman knights and clergy were

more intelligent than the English were, those Englishmen who were not very rich were more justly treated than men of the same class were in Normandy. The Norman knight could do almost as he liked with the peasants



A NORMAN KNIGHT.

who lived on his estate, and who sowed and reaped for him ; and he had a court of his own, in which he could punish them as he pleased. In England the peasants were certainly not so well off as they had been in Alfred's time.

Many of them were no longer free men, owning their own land, and gathering in their harvest for themselves, without working for any one else. They had become serfs ; that is to say, they were allowed land to till for themselves, if they would also work for their lord, and plough, and sow, and reap for him without being paid for their work. Still, if they were accused of doing wrong, they could not be punished without being allowed to bring their compurgators ; who, if they disbelieved the accusations, would be ready to swear that they were innocent. In this way the lord was prevented from ill-treating them ; and the poor man was much more justly dealt with in England, than he was in Normandy.

3. Edward the Confessor favours the Normans.—Edward might have done great good, if he had tried—as Dunstan had tried—to help his English subjects to learn what the Normans knew, and they did not know. Instead of doing that, he despised English people and English ways. He did not like to have Englishmen about him. He sent for Normans and promoted them. He actually made one of them Archbishop of Canterbury. He talked French instead of English. All this made the English very angry ; and they were headed

by a powerful man, Godwin, who was Earl of the West Saxons—that is to say, who ruled the West Saxons under the King. There were two other earls, those of Mercia and Northumberland, who were jealous of Godwin, and Godwin was driven into exile. After a short time he came back and drove out the Normans.

4. **Edward's last Days.**—After Godwin's death, his son Harold was Earl of the West Saxons, and ruled England in the King's name. Edward had to be content without Normans round him. The thing that he cared for most, was the building of the West Minster, the church of the great Westminster Abbey. It was not the one which is now to be seen. It was built with round arches, the fashion of building which had been taught by the Normans ; and it was not till afterwards that men began to build with pointed arches. Edward did not live to see it consecrated. He was buried in the church which he had founded.

5. **Harold, King of the English.**—Edward left no son or brother to succeed him. His brother's grandson, Edgar, known as the Atheling or the Prince, was but a boy ; and England could not be ruled by a boy. The great men chose Harold as their King, though

he was not of the royal race. Harold would, under any circumstances, have had a difficult task before him. The Earls of Mercia and Northumberland were sure to be jealous of him, and the North of England was not inclined to do much to help a man who came from the South. Though England had long been governed as one country, it was not united in heart as it is now. A man who lived in York did not feel much interest in the safety of men who lived in Exeter, or Southampton. Beyond the sea there were still worse dangers. Harold Hardrada, the Norwegian King, was threatening to invade Northern England ; and William, Duke of the Normans, the ablest and most warlike of an able and warlike race, threatened Southern England. Harold Hardrada only wanted, as Canute had done before him, to get as much land or wealth as he could ; but William actually claimed to be the true English King. He had no rightful claim at all ; but, by putting together a number of reasons, none of which was worth anything, he managed to make it seem as though he had a real claim.

6. **The Norman Invasion.**—Harold, therefore, had hard fighting before him. He heard that Harold Hardrada had landed in York-

shire. At once he marched north, and defeated and slew the Norwegian Harold at Stamford Bridge, near York. On the field of victory, he was told that William had landed near Pevensey. He marched hastily southwards. If England had been united, William would certainly have been overcome. But the men of the Centre and North of England did not care to fight for Harold. Only the men of the South and his own trained soldiers stood by him. His brother Gurth begged him not to risk a battle ; and advised him to lay waste the land between London and Pevensey, so as to starve William out. Harold answered, that not a foot of English ground should be desolated by him. He took up his position at Senlac, on a chalk ridge a few miles north of Hastings.

7. **The Battle of Senlac.**—The battle of Senlac, (or of Hastings, as it is sometimes called,) was one of those battles the winning of which depended on something more than mere bravery. Harold's Englishmen were as brave as William's Normans. But Englishmen thought, as Englishmen have often thought since, that it was best to do exactly as their fathers had done. The old fashion was to fight on foot, packed closely together, with

their shields before them, and even a palisade in front of them. An army so defended can resist as long as it stands firm, but it cannot move from the spot where it is, without separating its shields and leaving openings through which the enemy can break in. William's Normans were mostly on horseback.



They could move backwards and forwards, or sideways, just as their general wanted them to move. As usually happens, where two armies are equally brave, the one which had the commander with the strongest brain prevailed. William's footmen and horsemen tried first to storm the hill, but they were driven back. They tried again, and, by William's

42 OUTLINE OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

orders pretended to fly. Some of the English were simple enough to think that the victory was won. They rushed out in triumph. The Normans swiftly turned back, chased them uphill, and broke through the palisade. The English could resist for hours yet, but they could not conquer. Slowly and surely the Norman horse pressed along the crest of the hill, strewing the height with corpses as the hay is strewn in swathes before the mower. Harold and his chosen comrades held out longest. Then William called for his archers, and bade them shoot into the air. Down came an arrow crushing through Harold's eye. The English King lay slain ; and the Normans had gained the victory.

8. The Conquest of England.—It took three years and a half more to conquer England. The English had learned no lesson from their failure at Senlac. They could not unite against William. Sometimes the West resisted, sometimes the North. Each district fought separately, and each was separately overpowered.

CHAPTER VII.

THE CONQUEROR AND HIS SONS.

WILLIAM I. 1066. WILLIAM II. 1087. HENRY I. 1100.

1. **William the Conqueror.**—William is known in history as the Conqueror. But the word did not mean once what it means now. It did not mean a man who obtained his kingdom by a victory in war, but a man who obtained something which he did not possess before, whether he fought for it or not. William claimed to be King of England for certain reasons which, as he pretended, gave him a lawful title. Soon after the battle of Senlac, he was elected King by the great men ; and, though they were too much in fear of him to refuse to choose him, he could now speak of himself as the lawful King of England, as Edward and Alfred had been before him. He was one of those men who love order and good government whenever they do not come in the way of their own plans. But he would suffer no one to withstand him. ‘ Stark he was,’ writes an Englishman of the time, ‘ to men who withstood him ; so harsh and cruel was he, that none withstood his will. Earls

that did aught against his bidding, he cast into bonds. Bishops he stripped of their bishoprics ; abbots of their abbacies. He spared not his own brother ; first he was in the land, but the King cast him into bondage. If a man would live and hold his lands, need it were that he followed the King's will.'

2. The Normans gain Lands in England.—
Even when William did most wrong, he tried to make it seem as though it were rightly done. The fierce horsemen, who had charged with him up the hill of Senlac, had not come simply to please the duke. They wanted to be great men in England, to own rich corn-lands and stately homes. If William had not got these things for them, they would have turned against him. He therefore set to work to do as they wished ; but he made robbery look like the enforcement of the law. He said that he had been the lawful King ever since the death of Edward ; and that, therefore, all Englishmen who had fought against him at Senlac, or anywhere else, had been fighting against their lawful King, and had forfeited their land as rebels. He thus got a very large number of estates into his hands ; and these he gave away to his Norman followers. Before long, almost all the great estates were in the

hands of Normans. The English kept small estates, or became dependent upon the great Norman landowners.

3. William supported both by the Normans and the English.—In this way William was able to do nearly everything that he wished to do. The Norman landowners submitted to him, because, if they had not had a King to lead them, the English would have driven them out. And, strange as it may seem, the English submitted to him not unwillingly. The Norman whom they hated most was not the King, but the landowner with his armed followers, who lived in their midst and was ready to ill-treat them. They would rather have had an English King than a Norman King. But they would rather have a Norman King to keep the Norman tyrants in order, than no King at all. William had other schemes for securing obedience. He took care that even the richest of the Norman landowners should not hold much land in any one county. If the estates of these wealthy landowners were scattered about in different parts of England, they would find it difficult to bring their tenants to a single place to fight for them, without attracting the notice of the King's officers. In the towns, too, he built castles, the ruins of which are to be seen

now in many places. He filled them with soldiers of his own. One of these was built by him to keep down London, and is known as the Tower of London. He gave lands to the great lords, on condition that they would fight for him, and bring other fighting men with them. Those who had lands in this way knelt down before him and did homage to him. In order that the lords might be able to bring the proper number of fighting men, they gave pieces of their land to men who did homage to them. William was afraid, that those who had done homage to the lords, would be more faithful to the lords than to him ; and would fight for the lords against himself if they wanted to rebel. So he made all who had lands, either from him or from the lords, swear to him, at a great meeting at Salisbury, that they would be faithful to him. If they broke their oath, he could punish them as traitors; whereas, if he had not made them swear, they might have said that they must fight for their lords even against the King, because they had sworn to be faithful to them.

4. **William's Cruelty.**—William did worse things than this to secure his power. He was afraid that the Scots and the Danes might combine to attack the North of England. He

therefore resolved to place a barrier between him and them. He pitilessly wasted the whole of the fertile Vale of York, through which the North Eastern Railway now runs amidst smiling fields, with the moors on one side and the wolds on the other. Every house was burnt, every blade of corn destroyed. The inhabitants perished, or sold themselves into slavery to get food. Of some of them it is recorded, that 'they bowed their necks in the evil days, for bread.' This means that they had to give themselves up to be slaves, that they might escape starvation.

5. **The New Forest.**—William's devastation in the North is less generally remembered than his devastation in the South. The Vale of York he wasted in order to defend himself against his enemies. The New Forest he wasted for pleasure. Like all his race, he was passionately fond of hunting. It is said of him, that 'he loved the high deer as if he had been their father.' There were terrible punishments for those who chased them without his leave. Any one who has ever lived near the New Forest, and knows how poor the soil is, will be quite sure that it never could have been cultivated all over. What William did was to destroy the houses and crops scattered

in fertile places. But even that was enough to bring on him the curses of the wanderers whom he had rendered homeless.

6. *Domesday Book*.—Sometimes a man is blamed as much for things that he does well, as for things that he does ill. To us, one of his greatest titles to fame is the preparation of *Domesday Book*. This name was explained by a writer who lived about a hundred years later, as meaning that, when it was appealed to in any dispute, it was considered to settle the question as completely as all questions were to be settled at Domesday, or the day of the Last Judgment. It was a record of the lands of England, as well as of the men who owned them, and of the payments due to the King from each of these men. We know how useful such a record must have been. It enabled the King to settle justly how much taxation each person ought to pay. People then, as has sometimes happened since, would have been glad to pay no taxes at all. ‘There was not,’ they said, ‘a single rood of land, nor was there an ox, nor a cow, nor a pig passed by. It is shameful to tell that which he thought it no shame to do.’ Worse things even than this were said of him. ‘The King and the head men loved much and over-

much covetousness on gold and on silver ; and they recked not how sinfully it was gotten, if only it came to them.' With all his hardness, William was a lover of justice, when justice did not come in the way of his own projects. He punished thieves and murderer without mercy. It was said, that any man might go in his days from one end of the kingdom to the other, with his bosom full of gold.

7. William Rufus.—The Conqueror's son, William II., Rufus or the Red King, as he was called, was as able as his father. He never undertook anything in which he failed. He never allowed himself to be stopped by any obstacle which it was possible to overcome. Once he was eager to cross the Channel, to put down an insurrection in Normandy. He reached the sea-coast in the midst of a furious storm. The seamen refused to put out in such a tempest. 'Did you ever hear of a King that was drowned ?' he said. He forced them to sail, reached the other side safely, and overpowered his enemies. With his father's ability, he had none of his father's love of justice. He was desperately wicked with more than ordinary wickedness. Yet even this man owed his throne to the support of the English people. His elder

brother, Robert, had inherited the Dukedom of Normandy. The Norman nobles in England wished him to be King of England too. They knew he was soft and irresolute, and would let them do just as they pleased. The last thing which the English people wished, was that the Norman nobles should do as they pleased. What they pleased was to oppress their English neighbours. The English therefore rallied in thousands round William, and the Normans sullenly submitted to his rule.

8. William Rufus and Anselm.—After some time, William was brought into conflict with a man, whose gentle nature was even stronger than his own violent one. The Conqueror had filled the bishoprics and abbeys with Norman prelates, but had taken care to appoint none who were not distinguished for intelligence. The Red King looked upon the right of appointment as a means of getting money. He hit upon the simple plan of not appointing a successor at all to any bishop or abbot who happened to die. He then took for himself all the money which would have belonged to the bishop or abbot, if there had been one. At last he fell dangerously ill. When he was very ill, even

the Red King had a little conscience ; and his conscience told him that he had been doing wrong. The men who were about him begged him to appoint an Archbishop of Canterbury. They urged him to choose Anselm for the post. Anselm was a stranger from Italy, who had been at the head of a monastery in Normandy. He was a very learned man, and the holiest and gentlest of men then living. He did not wish to be the archbishop. He knew that, as archbishop, he could not live near the King, without speaking the truth of him. The plough of England, he said, cannot go straight, if you yoke to it a fierce young bull and a quiet old sheep. His remonstrances were in vain. He was dragged to the sick King's bedside, and his hands were forced open, that the crozier,—the mark of the bishop's authority,—might be forced into them. Anselm had spoken truly. The Red King recovered, and ceased to have a conscience any longer. Anselm persisted in saying and doing what he thought right ; and he was forced to leave the kingdom.

9. William's end was sudden. One day his corpse was found in the New Forest with an arrow through his heart. A certain Walter Tyrrell was thought to have done the deed.

But no one saw him do it, and it is quite as likely that the murderer was one of the many sufferers, who had been driven from their homes when the New Forest was made.

10. **Henry I.**—Henry I., the youngest son of the Conqueror, was chosen to succeed him.



THE DEATH OF WILLIAM RUFUS.

He married an English wife, a great granddaughter of Edmund Ironside. Through her, the kings of England are descended not merely from William the Conqueror, but also from Alfred and Egbert. Henry, like William, had a quarrel with Anselm ; but, after a time, the two men were reconciled. Henry, too, put down the great Norman landowners with a

heavy hand. His English subjects did not love him. His rule was too stern, and his taxation too heavy for that. But they preferred a stern King to the tyranny of the Norman landowners. They called him the Lion of



MILITARY, CIVIL, AND ECCLESIASTICAL COSTUME.
TIME, HENRY I.

Justice, and they served him faithfully for thirty-five years. With their help he overcame his brother Robert, took Normandy from him, and shut him up in Cardiff Castle as a prisoner for life.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE ANARCHY OF STEPHEN'S REIGN AND THE RESTORATION OF ORDER BY HENRY II.

(STEPHEN, 1135. HENRY II 1154.)

1. King Stephen.—When Henry died, Englishmen discovered what was the misery from which his hard rule had saved them. Henry's son, William, had been drowned in passing from Normandy to England ; and, though the barons,—that is to say, the great landowners in England,—had sworn to accept his daughter Matilda as their Queen, they refused to do so after his death. They chose instead his nephew Stephen. Stephen was not in any way a usurper, as he is sometimes called. There was then no law or custom giving the crown to the eldest son of the last King. The great men had always chosen some one of the royal family. There had never been a Queen in England before ; and, at a time when the King was accustomed to go to battle, most men would think that there ought not to be a Queen. Stephen was the man who was the nearest related to Henry. He was a generous and well-disposed man ;

but he had not the strong will of the three Kings before him. He could not keep the barons in order. Soon Matilda came to England and claimed the throne. Some of the barons fought for her, and some for Stephen. In reality very few of them cared either for her or for Stephen. They knew that, as long as there were two persons fighting for the crown, they themselves could do as they pleased.

2. Tyranny of the Nobles.—What they pleased to do, was ruinous for the English people. They built strong castles, and filled them with armed men. From these they rode out as robbers, as a wild beast goes forth from its den. ‘They fought among themselves with deadly hatred ; they spoiled the fairest lands with fire and rapine ; in what had been the most fertile of counties, they destroyed almost all the provision of bread.’ Whatever money or valuable goods they found they carried off. They burnt houses, and sacked towns. If they suspected any one of concealing his wealth, they carried him off to their castle ; and there they tortured him, to make him confess where his money was. ‘They hanged up men by their feet, and smoked them with foul smoke. Some were hanged up by

their thumbs, others by the head ; and burning things were hung on to their feet. They put knotted strings about men's heads, and twisted them till they went to the brain. They put



A NOBLE RIDING OUT FROM HIS CASTLE.

men into prisons, where adders, and snakes, and toads were crawling ; and so they tormented them. Some they put into a chest, short and narrow and not deep, and that had sharp stones within ; and forced men therein,

so that they broke all their limbs. In many of the castles were hateful and grim things called neckties, which two or three men had enough to do to carry. This instrument of torture was thus made: it was fastened to a beam, and had a sharp iron to go about a man's neck and throat, so that he might noways sit or lie or sleep, but he bore all the iron. Many thousands they starved with hunger.' The unhappy sufferers had no one to help them. Stephen and Matilda were too busy with their own quarrel to do justice to their subjects. Poor men cried to heaven, but they got no answer. 'Men said openly, that Christ and His saints were asleep.'

3. Henry II. restores Order.—At last a change came. In 1154, after a reign—if reign it can be called—of nineteen years, Stephen died. He was succeeded by Matilda's son, Henry II. Like his grandfather Henry I., this King was a man with a strong will. He was not gentle or merciful, but he understood clearly, that, if he wanted to be obeyed, he must put down the cruel tyrants who were the enemies of the people as much as his own. He set himself at once to pull down the castles. This was enough to restore order, because when the barons had no longer any

strong place to which they could carry off their victims and their plunder, they no longer dared to ill-treat their neighbours.

4. Military Reforms of Henry II.—When this was done, Henry set to work to prevent anything of the kind happening again. There was no army then as there is now, composed of men who leave their homes for several years to become soldiers. The fighting force was composed partly of the great landowners,—who had their lands from the King on condition of fighting for him on horseback,—and partly of the men who had only small estates, who were bound to come out and defend their own homes, if an invader landed in the country, or a rebellion took place. Henry wanted to weaken the great landowners, and offered to excuse them from serving him as soldiers, if they would pay him money. They were glad enough to be saved the trouble of fighting for the King, and were well pleased to pay money instead. In this way they grew less accustomed to fight, and so less dangerous to the King. On the other hand, Henry encouraged the men with little land, and arranged that they should always have arms, so that they might be ready to defend themselves.

5. Judicial Reforms.—Other reforms, too, were made by Henry. The law was improved in many ways. His grandfather had begun to send judges round the country, as they go now to the Assizes in different parts. Henry II. sent them out frequently, and directed them to find out the truth by asking a certain number of men in each county to which they came, who was the true owner of land in dispute, or who had committed murders or robberies. These men were sworn to tell the truth. After a while it was found that they did not always know what the truth was, and wanted to ask some one else. So by degrees after Henry's reign, the custom grew up that they should not say what they thought was true, till they had heard the evidence of other people. In this way they gradually grew to be what our jury is ; that is to say, a body of men which, after it has heard evidence in Court, declares its belief that something is true. This is called giving a verdict, a word which means 'true saying.' In Henry's time they declared their belief from their own private knowledge, without hearing evidence at all.

6. Union of English and Normans.—These changes were brought about by Henry. There

was another change which was going on, with which he had nothing to do. There was no longer a strict line of division between English and Normans. When Henry came to the throne, eighty-eight years had passed since the Conquest ; and during that time Normans and English had often married one another. In Henry's reign the upper classes still talked French, and the lower classes, (who were almost entirely English by birth,) talked English. But no one in the higher classes could say that he was altogether Norman, as he was almost certain to have had an English mother or grandmother.

7. Henry II. and the Clergy.—Henry was very successful in most things, but there was one thing in which he was not successful. The clergy then held the opinion that no clergyman, who had committed any crime, ought to be tried by the King's courts. He should be tried by special Church courts ; and, as the Church courts could not put any one to death, if a clergyman committed a murder he was only shut up in a monastery ; whilst a layman who committed the same offence, and was tried by the King's court, was hanged. The idea of a clergyman committing a murder, happily, seems strange now. But now clergymen are

men who devote themselves to religious work. Then scarcely any one, except the clergy, learned to read and write. Hence, if a man wanted to work with his brains rather than with his hands, he became a clergyman. Then, as now, some people wanted to use their brains for the purpose of cheating others. Then, as now, some people wanted to use their brains to lead idle lives at the expense of others; and therefore the clergy in Henry II.'s time included a great many idle and wicked men. Henry II. insisted that these men, if they committed crimes, should be tried in his courts.

8. Henry II. makes Becket Archbishop of Canterbury.—Thomas Becket had been Henry's chancellor, whose business it was to write letters for him, and look after his affairs. He had been a gay, extravagant man, very zealous in doing all that Henry wished; and Henry therefore now appointed him Archbishop of Canterbury, expecting him to help him in making the clergy submit to be tried in the King's courts.

9. Quarrel between Henry II. and Becket.—As soon as Becket became archbishop he turned against the King, lived very plainly, and gave up all his expensive habits. Becket

was the sort of man who was sure to take up any quarrel warmly ; and he was not quite without arguments on his side. Henry might ask, why a clergyman who had committed a murder, should not be punished in the same way as a layman ? Becket would answer, that a clergyman belonged to a holy order, and ought not to be punished by a lay judge; which is not an answer to which we should pay much attention now. He might also have said, that it did not follow that a lay judge would always judge justly. We are accustomed to judges who always do their best to be just. In early times, judges often did not care whether they were just or not. Henry himself, when he was out of temper, did not care whether he was just or not. He caused Becket to be accused before his court on a trumpery pretext, and had him fined enormously. What the clergy really had to fear, was, that the King, if once his courts were allowed to judge them, would not be content with punishing those of them who robbed or murdered, but would also punish those who were quite innocent, for the sake of getting their money. Even Henry, lover of order as he was, was capable of the wildest passion. Sometimes, when he received news which he

disliked, he would throw himself on the floor, and roll about amidst the straw or rushes,—which then served instead of a carpet,—biting them with his teeth in his rage. But, though all this was true, it is also true that Becket was an ambitious man, fond of contention, and not at all a gentle and holy saint, who cared only for righteousness, as Anselm had cared for it.

10. Murder of Becket.—At first Henry got the better of the archbishop; Becket refused to submit, and left the kingdom. After some years, the two made peace ; and Becket returned to Canterbury. Becket again displeased the King. Henry fell into one of his rages and cried out, ‘ Who will rid me of this turbulent priest ? ’ Four knights at once left the house, and made their way to Canterbury. They found Becket ; and, after using angry words to which he replied no less angrily, they rushed away to arm themselves. Becket’s friends persuaded him to take refuge in the cathedral. He showed no sign of fear. When the armed knights were heard approaching, he refused to allow his followers to shut the doors. ‘ No one,’ he said, ‘ should be debarred from entering the house of God.’ Most of those who were with him ran off to hide themselves.

He remained quiet and unmoved as the knights dashed in, shouting, ‘Where is the traitor?’ ‘Behold me,’ he answered; ‘no traitor, but a priest of God.’ One of the knights seized on him, to drag him out of the cathedral. Becket dashed him to the ground, calling one of the others by a foul name,—not such a one as would have proceeded from the lips of Anselm. The knight smote at him with his sword. One of Becket’s few faithful attendants thrust his arm forward to receive the blow. The arm was almost cut off. Other blows followed, and Becket fell bleeding to the floor. The murderers did not leave him till life was gone. Nothing worse could have happened for Henry. He, who wanted to be a restorer of law, appeared before the world as a murderer. The great nobles at once took advantage of his mistake, and rose in rebellion, hoping to be supported by all who were displeased with Henry’s conduct. Henry at once saw that he must persuade people that he was sorry for what he had done. Perhaps, like most people who are passionate, he really was sorry. He came to Canterbury, and knelt down before Becket’s tomb, and told the monks to flog him as a punishment for his crime. His repentance, whether it was real or not, satisfied the

people. They did not want to be ruled over by the great nobles, and to have again such misery as they had endured in the evil days of



THE PENANCE OF HENRY II.

Stephen. Henry's armies were everywhere victorious, and he once more ruled England without opposition. But he was obliged to give up most of his claims over the clergy.

**DOMINIONS
of the
ANGEVIN KINGS**

Angevin Possessions
Shewn thus [hatched]



Becket was revered as a priest and a martyr, though there was very little that was saint-like in him. For many generations, crowds used to flock to Canterbury to pray at his tomb. The marks on the pavement are still to be seen, which were made by men and women moving up the church, on their knees, towards the place where his body was.

11. Henry's foreign Dominions.—Henry's dominions were even more extensive beyond the seas than they were in England. He conquered part of Ireland ; and from his time the English Kings counted Ireland as subject to them. But it was not till the end of Elizabeth's reign, more than four hundred years later, that the whole country was really subdued. Besides this, Henry, partly by inheritance from his father and mother, and partly by his marriage, ruled over the western part of France from the English Channel to the Pyrenees. From Anjou, which he had from his father, he and his sons are known as the *Angevin* Kings. He had great trouble with his own sons. The elder ones rebelled against him from time to time, and he trusted the youngest, John, more than all. At last there was a war between Henry and the King of France. When peace was made, Henry asked to know how many

of his own subjects had promised to help the French against him. The list was shown him, and the first name on the list was that of John. He could not bear the revelation. He fell sick and died in a few days. ‘Shame, shame, on a conquered King,’ were the last words that he spoke. He was succeeded by his son Richard.

CHAPTER IX.

THE SONS OF HENRY II., AND THE GREAT CHARTER.

(RICHARD I. 1189. JOHN, 1199.)

1. **The Crusades.**—Richard I. was hardly an English King. He only visited England twice during his reign ; and that was only to get as much money as he could. Early in his reign he went on a crusade. The crusades had begun in the time of William Rufus. Christian pilgrims had long been in the habit of visiting Jerusalem, to pray at the spots where Our Lord was born, was crucified, and was buried. The Arabs, who, before the time

of William Rufus, governed Jerusalem, were Mahometans, or believers in a religion which had been preached by Mahomet. Yet though they did not believe in Christianity, they allowed the Christian pilgrims to come and go in peace. Then Jerusalem was taken by the Turks, who were also Mahometans, and who came from the middle of Asia, and did not then rule at Constantinople. These Turks were much more brutal than the Arabs, and ill-treated the pilgrims. A man, called Peter the Hermit, went about Western Europe, calling on all men to take arms and to rescue Jerusalem. The Pope gave his approval ; and crowds of men poured out of Western Europe to conquer the Holy Land. The enterprise was called a crusade ; because those who went fixed a cross to their dress, as a sign that they counted themselves as the warriors of Christ. Large numbers were starved or killed on the way ; but a smaller body of well-armed knights and noblemen followed, and conquered Jerusalem. There was a strange mixture of brutality and humility in these men. When Jerusalem was taken, there was a horrible massacre of the inhabitants. Not only were grown men and women butchered in cold blood, but innocent children were dashed to

death against the walls. The Crusaders set up a Christian kingdom of Jerusalem, and chose one of their number, Godfrey of Bouillon, as the first king. He ruled as King, but he refused to be crowned. He would not, he said, wear a crown of gold where his Saviour had worn a crown of thorns.

2. **Richard I. goes on a Crusade.**—The Christian kingdom of Jerusalem lasted almost to the end of the reign of Henry II. Then Jerusalem was again taken by the Mahometans. Before this, very few English had taken part in the crusades. Richard now determined to set out to recover Jerusalem. He was an excellent warrior, fond of adventure, and loving fighting for the sake of excitement and amusement. But he was quarrelsome ; and he determined, not only to do more than any one else, but, to make men acknowledge that he did more than any one else. Men like this never succeed. Before he reached the Holy Land, he had quarrelled with the King of France. After he reached the Holy Land he quarrelled with the Duke of Austria. He fought bravely, and won renown against Saladin, the Mahometan leader. But the men of other nations would not join heartily with him. He could not

retake Jerusalem. Once, indeed, he came within sight of it. But he turned proudly and sadly away ; and refused to look on the place where a mosque,—or building for Mahometan worship,—rose on the site which had once been occupied by the temples of Solomon, of Zerubbabel, and of Herod. If he was not worthy, he said, to regain the Holy City, he was not worthy even to look on it.

3. Richard I. returns Home.—Having accomplished nothing, he returned home. He attempted to pass overland through Austria ; but he was recognised and detained. The Duke of Austria handed him over to the Emperor, Henry VI., who ruled over Germany and a great part of Italy ; and the Emperor kept him in prison, till his mother and his friends ransomed him with a large sum of money. The rest of his life was spent by him in fighting in France. At last, he was shot down by a man who aimed at him from a castle wall. The castle was taken before he died, and he ordered his attendants to spare the man to whom he owed his death. There was a nobleness in him besides his bravery ; and he was long remembered as *Cœur de Lion*, or the Lion-Hearted. But

he had no thought of making the people over whom he ruled better or happier ; and England has no cause to be grateful to him.

4. John loses Normandy.—In 1199, Richard's youngest brother John was chosen king, in preference to a boy, named Arthur. Arthur was the son of a third brother, Geoffrey, who was dead, and who was younger than Richard, but older than John. John, therefore, came to the throne in the same way as Alfred and Stephen ; and it is only by mistake that some people call him a usurper. John was as wicked as William Rufus,—utterly selfish and rapacious. ‘ He feared not God, nor regarded man.’ He could be very mean and very cruel. At the beginning of his reign, he was afraid lest Arthur, when he grew up, should be too strong for him ; and Arthur disappeared. No one told how Arthur was murdered. Some said that John had drowned him with his own hands ; but it is not known whether this is true. The King of France at once ordered John, who was Duke of Normandy as well as King of England, to come to Paris to be tried for murder ; and, when he refused to come, took from him a great part of his lands in France. The lands between the

English Channel and the Loire, which John had from his father, were lost. Only the lands south of the Loire, which John had from his mother, were kept.

5. John's Tyranny in England.—In England, John tried to enrich himself by heavy taxes, (which he laid on at his own pleasure,) and by plundering rich persons. It is said, that he threw into prison a rich Jew, who refused to give him an enormous sum of money; and that he pulled out one of the Jew's teeth every day, till the money was paid. Wealthy noblemen were treated in much the same way. In Stephen's time, the great landowners oppressed the people; and the people had therefore supported Henry II., and had made him strong, that he might reduce the great landowners to order. John oppressed both great and small; and made them join together against himself. Ready as all classes were to resist the tyrant, it was a long time before they dared to rebel. He brought into England large bodies of foreign mercenaries, or hired soldiers, thoroughly trained for fighting, who would do anything that John ordered them to do, as long as they received money from him.

6. John and the Monks of Canterbury.—

John fancied that no one could resist him. The monks of Canterbury had the right of electing the archbishop; but, as they had always chosen the man whom the King asked them to choose, they had not hitherto had an important part to play in the matter. When the archbishop died, John ordered them to elect his treasurer, the Bishop of Norwich. They chose instead one of themselves, a certain Reginald ; and sent him off to the Pope to ask for his support. They charged Reginald to hold his tongue till he reached Rome. Reginald, however, was so vain of his election, that he chattered about it as soon as he had passed the sea. John was furious when he heard what had happened, and forced the monks to elect the Bishop of Norwich, as if they had never elected Reginald.

7. Stephen Langton chosen Archbishop at Rome.—When Reginald arrived at Rome, he found himself in the presence of one of the greatest of the Popes, Innocent III. Innocent believed, that it would be best for the world, if kings and nobles had nothing to do with appointing bishops ; and if they could be compelled to keep out of war, by submitting their quarrels to the arbitration of the Pope. Innocent, therefore, would not accept the treasurer

as archbishop; and he saw that Reginald was too foolish a man to make a good archbishop. He told the monks who had come to Rome with Reginald, that they had better choose Stephen Langton, a pious and learned Englishman, to the vacant see. This they did, and Reginald had to return a disappointed man.

8. England under an Interdict.—John was still more furious with the Pope, than he had been with the monks. He refused to admit Stephen Langton into England, and plundered the clergy. Innocent laid England under an interdict ; that is to say, ordered the clergy to put a stop to all the public services of the Church. The Holy Communion was no longer to be administered ; no funeral service was to be heard at the burial of those who died ; baptism was only administered in private. To the mass of the people, it was horrible to be cut off from attendance upon the services of the Church. It seemed as though the gate of heaven were closed against them. John did not care whether it was closed or not. He took a malicious pleasure in seizing the lands and goods of the clergy, who obeyed the Pope by shutting up their churches.

9. John excommunicated.—Then Innocent proceeded to excommunicate the King—that

is to say, to deprive him of the right of partaking of the Holy Communion. When excommunication had been pronounced, all pious Christians were expected to avoid the society of the excommunicated person. John cared as little for excommunication, as he had cared for the interdict ; and he treated the clergy more cruelly than ever. Then the Pope invited Philip II., King of France, to invade England, and dethrone the excommunicated John. Philip was not usually very obedient to the Pope ; but he found out that it was quite right to obey him, when obedience might make him King of England as well as of France. John had no one to trust but his mercenaries. Almost every Englishman would be on Philip's side. He therefore resolved to make his peace with Innocent. Taking off his crown, he laid it at the feet of Pandulph, the Pope's legate, and acknowledged that he would thenceforth hold it under the Pope, and would pay him a sum of money every year, as an acknowledgment of his superiority. He also agreed to acknowledge Langton as Archbishop.

10. Demands of the Barons.—Philip was greatly disappointed to have to give up the invasion of England ; and the English nobles

were disappointed too. They wanted, not merely that the clergy should be safe, but, that every man, layman or clergyman, rich or poor, should be safe under the protection of the law. When Archbishop Stephen Langton arrived in England, he was large-minded enough to see that it was better for the clergy to join with the laity, than to be content with the Pope's protection for themselves. The nobles gathered an army together ; and the archbishop drew up the demands which the King was to be asked to grant. This time the King had not his mercenaries with him. Sulkily, and sorely against his will, John swore at Runnimede,—an island in the Thames near Staines,—to give all that he was asked to give.

11. Magna Carta.—The demands which, in 1215, he swore to grant, are known in history as the 'Great Charter ;' or by their Latin name as *Magna Carta*. By them, the King engaged to levy no payments from those who held their lands from him, except in certain specified cases, unless they granted money to him themselves. Neither was he to deal with the lives and goods of Englishmen at his pleasure. 'No freeman,' he was made to declare, 'shall be seized, or imprisoned, or dis-

possessed, or outlawed, or in any way brought to ruin ; nor will we go against any man, nor send against him,—save by the legal judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land.' The Great Charter contained other articles of the highest value. But the root of the matter lay



SIGNING MAGNA CARTA.

in these two :—The King of England was not to be a man raised up above his fellows to take as much of their money as he pleased ; and, he was not to imprison them or punish them when he pleased. In other words, he was to take their money when they gave it him for public objects ; and he was to punish them,

only when they were adjudged to have committed crimes by the verdict of their fellow-countrymen. Later generations built on these two principles a whole system of law. But it is the Great Charter which is the foundation of it all. The first principle, that the King could not take money when he pleased, made him obliged to take the advice of his subjects, because they would not give him money unless he did as they wished him to do. Gradually, in this way, the government of the country came to be carried on, not as the King wished, but as the people wished. The second principle,—that the King could not punish those whom he wished,—has brought it about that we are governed by law ; and not by the will of any one man.

12. Final Troubles of the Reign.—It was easier to lay down such principles than to enforce them. John was not inclined to submit to his subjects longer than he could help. He slipped away, got together his mercenaries, turned savagely upon the nobles who had resisted him, and drove them before him. They, in turn, called in foreign help. As he, in his necessity, had taken the Pope to be his supporter, so they, in their necessity, called upon Lewis, the son of the King of France, to

come to be their King. Lewis landed with an army. The Pope took the part of John. Like some other people, he could not bear to see a good thing done, unless he were the doer of it. The fortune of war seemed likely to decide against John and the Pope. As John crossed the sands of the Wash, the tide rose and swept away his baggage, in which was a large quantity of money. Disappointed, he fell ill and died at Newark, in the autumn of 1216.

CHAPTER X.

HENRY III. AND THE BARONS' WARS.

(HENRY III. 1216.)

1. **The English People declare for Henry III.**—It seems strange to us that a Frenchman should have been invited to reign in England. The idea, that those who govern a nation should be born in it and speak its language, could not be felt as strongly then as it is now. It is true that the mass of men then, as now, spoke English. But the nobles and great men spoke French, and the clergy used Latin in the services of the Church, and wrote

and sometimes spoke in Latin. Still, especially after Normandy had been lost, the English people were beginning to feel that they were Englishmen, whatever language they spoke. The few, who followed John to the last, crowned his son Henry as King; and those who had opposed John, after a little time, accepted Henry. Lewis found himself deserted, and was obliged to return to France.

2. Accession of Henry III.—Henry III. was but nine years old. It was the first time that a child had been King of England. If he had had an uncle, or an older cousin, he would probably never have ruled. As he had none, men preferred an English child as their King, to a grown-up man who was French. The noble William Marshall, Earl of Pembroke, governed the kingdom during the short remainder of his life. The Great Charter was accepted as the law of the land; but the part of it forbidding the King to tax, without their consent, those who held lands from him was left out.

3. Henry's Weakness of Character.—When young Henry became a man, he made a very bad King. He was not cruel and violent like his father, but weak and contemptible. He made many promises, but never kept them.

He was fond of spending money, and he often spent it to no good purpose. The best thing that he did was to rebuild Westminster Abbey, and to make it very much what it now is. Ever since the days of Henry II., the pointed arches had been used in churches and other buildings, in the place of the round arches of the days of the Conqueror and his sons. Henry's work, in building the great abbey-church, was well done. But he could never understand that he had any duty to perform to England. Like Edward the Confessor in many respects, he was like him in this,—that he preferred foreigners to Englishmen. Two batches of foreigners were specially favoured by him. First came his mother's relations from Poitou, in the west of France, to the south of the Loire. Then came his wife's relations from Provence, a land on the shores of the Mediterranean, to the east of the Rhone. Whatever there was that Henry had to give away, castles, lands, lordships, and even bishoprics, went to these foreigners. Englishmen, both laymen and clergymen, naturally grumbled at a system which gave all the good things to the foreigners, and left only the crumbs to be picked up by them.

4. Henry sends Money to the Pope.—Before

long another mischief appeared. The Popes, the successors of Innocent III., engaged themselves in wars in Italy. They gave out that they were fighting for the cause of Christianity itself. Henry believed all they said ; and allowed them to send men to England to tax the English clergy. As they did not get enough in this way to satisfy them, he himself laid taxes upon both clergy and laity, and sent the money to Rome.

5. Growing Influence of Parliament.—To levy these taxes, he was obliged to ask the consent of a body, which was now beginning to be called ‘Parliament.’ It had existed under different names, and with some difference in its composition, ever since the English had come into the island. At the beginning of this reign, it very much resembled the present House of Lords, without any House of Commons. There were in it barons,—who were landowners with large estates,—and also the bishops, and the principal abbots, or heads of the monasteries. But, though Parliament was continually asked for money, and though for some time it granted what was asked, the dissatisfaction with a King who squandered English money on foreigners, grew deeper every year.

6. Simon de Montfort.—At last, the barons and clergy of England found a leader in a man who was, strangely enough, a foreigner by birth. Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, had married the King's sister. He was the first warrior of the day; a man great in capacity as in moral worth. 'Sir Simon the Righteous' was the name by which he was popularly known. Under his guidance a Parliament was held at Oxford, in 1258, where the barons appeared in arms. By a series of agreements, known as the *Provisions of Oxford*, the government was taken out of the hands of the King, and placed in the hands of various councils. The arrangement did not last long. The barons had it all their own way in the councils, and the lesser landowners began to fear that they would not get justice from the great ones. Earl Simon would have done justice if he could, but the barons were too strong for him. Their folly made them as unpopular, as the King had been unpopular before; and Henry almost regained his old authority.

7. The Battle of Lewes and the Government of Earl Simon.—For some time there was agitation and confusion, with no certain superiority on either side. The barons were

divided between their jealousy of the King and their jealousy of Earl Simon. For all that, Earl Simon was growing in strength. Some years before, the freeholders,—or men holding land of their own, whether it was much or little,—had been allowed to choose men to go to Parliament to speak in their name, and to ask for the things which they wanted. These men are called the *representatives* of those who send them; and the representatives of the freeholders were like the county members of our own time. The towns, too, were increasing in commercial prosperity, and in the habit of managing their own affairs. The towns,—and especially London, the greatest of them all,—threw themselves on the side of the earl. In 1264, he gathered his followers together, came down upon the King at Lewes, in Sussex, and utterly defeated him. At the end of the day, Henry had been made prisoner; and his eldest son, Edward, surrendered himself soon after. For rather more than a year, Earl Simon ruled England. He summoned the towns to send representatives for the first time to Parliament. He wished that people of every class,—the great landowners, the clergy, the small landowners, and the townsmen,—should all be able to say

for themselves in Parliament what they wanted. As a political verse-writer of the day expressed it, the community of the realm was to be consulted ; and it was to be known what was thought by the nation as a whole. This is exactly what we try to do now. Whenever there is a general election, the nation chooses men who can go to Parliament and say what the nation itself wishes to have done. Then, after that, it is the business of wise men, who make up what is called the ‘government,’ to find out how it is to be done.

8. The Battle of Evesham and the Death of Earl Simon.—Earl Simon meant to rule well ; but once more the jealousy of the barons was too strong for him. Young Edward, the King’s eldest son, was wise and able beyond his years ; and he watched the spread of this jealousy. He resolved to make his escape. One day, he suggested to his keepers to ride races—for their amusement as well as his own. When their horses were thoroughly tired, he rode off on his fresh one, and was soon out of sight. Most of the barons flocked to his standard. Earl Simon was at Evesham. From the top of the church tower he saw the prince approaching.

'Commend your souls to God,' he said to the faithful few who were around him, 'for our bodies are the prince's.' His little army was overpowered. The earl was slain, and his body was shamefully mutilated. After a while, all further resistance was overcome. The King's authority was restored, and up to his death, in 1272, no man ventured to raise a hand against him.

CHAPTER XI.

(EDWARD I. 1272.)

1. The Rule of Edward I. in England.—Henry's son, Edward I., was a very different man from his father. He was great enough, and wise enough, to carry out the work which Earl Simon had begun. He allowed no foreigners to thrust Englishmen out of places of authority on the soil of England. He made no promises with the intention of breaking them. He surrounded himself with the best and wisest counsellors that he could find. Wise as his counsellors were, he did not trust in them alone. He thought, as Earl Simon had thought, that what was intended for the

good of all, should be submitted to the counsel of all. He did not, for a long time, summon a Parliament in which all classes of men were found ; but he summoned just those men who knew anything about the



KING EDWARD I.

matter he wanted advice on. In this way he became a great lawgiver ; because he never made a law without hearing what those people had to say, whom the law principally concerned. In his hands, England prospered as

it had never done before. Edward kept the peace well ; so that, in his days, the barons did



not dare to oppress the freeholder and the citizen, or to resist the authority of the King.

2. The Conquest of Wales.—Edward enjoyed the sight of a people living peacefully and orderly. He fancied, that the best thing that could happen to people, who were not under his rule, would be to be brought under it. Of all the Britons who were found on the south of the Solway Firth, at the coming of Hengist and Horsa, only those of North Wales still retained their independence under their own princes; though, even there, the princes acknowledged the superiority of the English King. Edward resolved to make this superiority felt as a real authority. Two princes in succession resisted the attempt. Edward overpowered them, and united the hills round Snowdon to his English kingdom. He showed his infant son to the Welsh, and offered the child to them as their prince. From that time the eldest son of the English King has always borne the title of ‘Prince of Wales.’

3. Edward's Interference in Scotland.—Wales was a small country, and its conquest was not very hard. Later in his reign Edward attempted a more difficult task. Alexander III., King of Scotland, fell with his horse over a high cliff on the coast of Fife. He was taken up dead; and his grand-daughter, known as



the ‘Maid of Norway,’ was sent for to succeed him. The poor child died before she reached Scotland; and, as there were none but distant relations to claim the Crown, it seemed likely that there would be a bloody civil war to decide who was to wear it. To avoid this, the Scots called in Edward to act as umpire between the claimants. The two chief competitors were John Balliol and Robert Bruce. Edward summoned the leading men of Scotland to meet him under the walls of Norham Castle, by the Tweed. Before he would give his decision, he asked them a question. Would the future King of Scotland accept the King of England as his Lord Paramount or superior, and do homage to him, and swear to be his man, as John had sworn to the Pope, and as the Dukes of Normandy had sworn to the Kings of France? The demand was not altogether without foundation. In the days of Edward, the son of Alfred, the Scots were in fear of the Danes; and their King had, as we are told, chosen this earlier Edward as their father and lord. They did not always behave like very dutiful sons. When they did not want anything from England, and when the King of England was weak, they gave him no respect or obedience. When the King of

England was strong, the Scots were forced to acknowledge his superiority. Henry II. was the last who had enforced the claim. Richard I. had abandoned it. The Scots now acknowledged the claim again. Edward declared John Balliol to be the true heir of Alexander. Balliol accordingly did homage to Edward, and was crowned King of Scotland.

4. Edward subdues Scotland.—In the time of Edward the Elder, the submission of the Scots did not bring with it any strong duty of obedience. The England of the Edward who now reigned, was far stronger than the England of those earlier days; and Edward I. meant his superiority to be marked by the submission of Scotland to the English Courts of Law. When men went to law in Scotland, those who lost their cause asked that it might be heard again in England ; and Edward insisted that it should be as they asked. The Scots were very angry. They declared that they had never meant anything of the kind. Rather than submit, they forced Balliol to lead them in war against England. Edward was wrathful when he heard the news of what he called rebellion. He marched to Scotland, overpowered Balliol, and deposed him. He left Scotland to be ruled by English governors;

and he carried off that stone on which the Scottish Kings had always been crowned at Scone, and which now is to be seen in Westminster Abbey, under the coronation chair of the sovereign of Great Britain. The fable ran, that it was the very stone on which Jacob laid his head, when he saw the angels ascending and descending at Bethel. Scotsmen boldly prophesied that, wherever that stone was found, Kings of Scottish blood would reign. Three centuries later, their descendants boasted that the prophecy had been fulfilled in the accession of a Scottish King to the throne of England.

5. Resistance of William Wallace.— Edward wished to rule Scotland fairly and justly. But it is impossible to rule a nation fairly and justly, when it is determined not to be ruled at all. Englishmen were sent to keep order; and many of them ill-treated the Scots. A Scot, named William Wallace, was insulted by some of them. He gathered his friends and attacked them in return. By-and-by all Scotland was in insurrection. Wallace gathered an army, and brought it to the north end of a narrow bridge near Stirling. The English despised him; and began to cross over the bridge. When half of them were over, Wallace

attacked those who had reached the north bank, before the rest could press over the bridge to help them. Wallace gained a complete victory, drove the English out of Scotland, crossed the border, and plundered and burnt English houses in Northumberland. Edward and the English were very angry. In Scotland Wallace was regarded as a true patriot. In England he was held to be no better than an infamous robber. Edward again invaded Scotland, where Wallace had few except foot soldiers to oppose to him ; and these he gathered together at Falkirk. He formed them in a ring with their pikes stretched out before them. Englishmen had, by this time, learnt the use of the bow, which had done such service to the Normans at Hastings. They boasted that an Englishman's cloth-yard shaft was longer, and his bow stronger, than that of any other nation. On every village green the small landowner learnt to shoot at the butts. About a century later, a great poet pointed it out, as the mark of one of these small landowners, that 'in his hand he bore a mighty bow.' At Falkirk the flight of English arrows cleared a gap in the Scottish ranks. The English horsemen dashed in ; and the brave Scotsmen died grimly where they stood. Before long all further resistance

was put down, and Wallace's rule was at an end. He fled, and remained in hiding till he was captured some years later. It is said that he was betrayed by a Scot, named Menteith ; who gave a signal to the English soldiers by turning the loaf on the table with the bottom uppermost. For a long time, it was held to be an insult, to any one of the name of Menteith, to turn a loaf the wrong way in his presence. Wallace was taken to London, and brutally executed on Tower Hill, as a traitor. Englishmen and Scotsmen can join, now, in honouring the memory of one who fought bravely for his native land. Edward united Scotland with England ; and directed, that Scottish representatives should take part in the English Parliament.

6. The Confirmation of the Charters.—The English Parliament had become, in the midst of the struggle with Scotland, what it has ever since been. In 1295 the first complete Parliament met. Either then, or at least not long afterwards, the Parliament was divided into two Houses. The barons with the bishops and abbots, formed the House of Lords ; whilst the men chosen by the counties and towns, formed the House of Commons. Edward found, that, if he was to expect money from

Parliament for his wars, he must promise never to take money without the consent of Parliament ; and, in 1297, he swore to articles known as the ‘ Confirmation of the Charters,’ in which he promised to levy no more money without a grant from Parliament. At the same time that Edward was obliged to give way to Parliament, he found himself strong enough to resist the clergy. The Pope gave orders that the clergy should not pay taxes to Kings, who were only laymen. Edward did not get in a passion, as Henry II. had done when Becket displeased him, but quietly let the clergy know, that, if they did not pay taxes, he should not protect them. The consequence was, that, if a clergyman was robbed, the judges refused to punish the thief ; and the clergy discovered that it was safer for them to pay taxes. The clergy, after this, always brought their complaints to the King and the Parliament, instead of separating themselves from them. Every one saw that Edward would do his best to do what was just ; and the clergy, therefore, did not find as much support in the people as they had in the time of Henry II. and Becket.

7. Rise of Robert Bruce.—Scotland would have nothing to do with Edward’s government, however good it might be. The Scots

wanted to manage their own affairs without him. The nation found a new leader in Robert Bruce, the grandson of one of the competitors at Norham. Bruce was hardy and audacious. In the church of Dumfries he stabbed Comyn, another of the competitors. 'I doubt,' he said, as he rushed from the sacred building, 'I have slain the red Comyn.' 'I will make sure,' was the reply of one of his followers, who went into the church and completed the murder. It was just the sort of thing which would rouse Edward's righteous indignation. Before he could reach Scotland, Bruce had been crowned at Scone; though the ancient stone was no longer there. Edward's troops, however, were masters of the country. By his orders, the Countess of Buchan, who had placed the crown on Bruce's head, was seized and imprisoned in a cage, like a captive bird, high up on the walls of Berwick.

The Scottish troops were easily routed. The Scottish leaders were sent to the block, or to the gallows. In 1307, Edward set forth in person to complete his work by the destruction of Bruce himself. For good or for evil the old man's work was done. The noblest of our English Kings died in Burgh-upon-Sands, near Carlisle. In England he had been a wise

and firm ruler, striving to give to every man his due. His hand had been heavy upon Scotland, and by all Scotsmen he was long regarded as a bloodthirsty tyrant. Yet, even in his dealings with Scotland, he had meant to do well.

CHAPTER XII.

(EDWARD II. 1307. EDWARD III. 1327.)

1. **Edward II. and Robert Bruce.**—There have been good Kings, and bad Kings, in our history; but Edward II. was the only one of our Kings, who did not even try to do, in some way, the work of a King. Edward II. cared for amusements and jests, and pleasure of every kind; but he let public affairs alone. He was joking with an unworthy favourite, named Piers Gaveston, when he ought to have been governing England. For a time, the English soldiers, whom his great father had trained, held Scotland down. Bruce fled, through adventure after adventure, from one Highland hiding-place to another. Whenever he saw a chance, he dashed out upon the English. But, for a long time, he was always

forced to fly after a moment's success. There is a story, that, as he lay sleepless on his bed in utter despair of success, he watched a spider springing forward six times to attach its thread to a wall, and failing every time. The seventh time the spider succeeded. Bruce determined



BRUCE WATCHING THE SPIDER.

to try once more, and this time he was successful. England was weakened by Edward's folly. The English nobles had risen against him; and, when Englishmen were quarrelling with one another, they had no time to oppose Bruce in Scotland. One fortress after another was taken, till Stirling

alone, of all the Scottish fortified towns, remained in the keeping of an English garrison.

2. **Bannockburn.**—After this, even Edward II. could no longer look on carelessly. In 1314, he led a mighty army to the help of the garrison in Stirling. Bruce met him at Bannockburn, close by the town. Bruce was as wary as he was bold. ‘Well skilled to rule the fight,’ he dug pits in front of his army, placed sharp stakes upright in them, and covered them over with turf supported by sticks. The horses of the proud English knights, galloping over the ground, broke through the turf, and plunged into the pits. The whole army of Edward was thrown into confusion. The Scots fought heartily for their native country. Suddenly, over the brow of a hill, a number of servants appeared ; who were mistaken by the dispirited English for another army. Edward, and his brilliant array of nobles and knights, turned and fled. From that time forward, there were many wars between England and Scotland; but Scotland never again ran any serious risk of being conquered.

3. **The End of the Reign of Edward II.**—For some years longer, Edward II. remained on the throne, doing no good to any one. Even

his wife joined his enemies, and with general assent dethroned him ; and made his eldest son King, as Edward III. Not long afterwards Edward II. was brutally murdered at Berkeley Castle.

4. Causes of the Hundred Years' War.—In the reign of Edward III., began what is usually known as the *Hundred Years' War* with France ; because, though it did not continue for all that period without stopping, fighting stopped very seldom, and then only for a very few years, till a hundred years were over. The beginning of the war was caused by two things. In the first place, the King of England still possessed lands in the part of France called Gascony, round Bordeaux ; and the King of France coveted a country where the people talked French, though it had never been subject to any of his family before. In the second place, the French King wished to obtain power in Flanders, the western part of that country which is now known as the kingdom of Belgium. At that time, it was very important to England, that Flanders should not be in the power of the French King. It was full of great manufacturing towns, such as Ghent and Bruges, where wool was made into cloth ; and, as there was no calico made then,

or cotton goods of any kind, woollen cloth was even more wanted in the time of Edward III. than it is now. These towns, therefore, were in those days very much what Manchester and Leeds are in our time. In England there were no such places. Not only were there no great towns, but the country was very different from what it is now. There was a much larger tract of open land without hedges, over which strayed large flocks of sheep, just as they do now in Australia ; and many Englishmen lived and grew rich, by shearing these sheep, and sending the wool to be made into cloth in Flanders ; as the Australians now send their wool to be made into cloth at Leeds ; and the Americans and others send cotton to be made into calico at Manchester. Englishmen were therefore afraid lest the French King should conquer these towns, and stop their trade with England.

5. Edward's Claim to the French Throne.—Edward, however, was not content to fight for the trade with Flanders. He declared that he was himself the lawful King of France ; because his mother had been the sister of the last King ; whilst the King who now reigned in France, Philip VI., was only the last King's

cousin. The French said that a woman could not rule in France ; nor could any man have any right to rule there through his mother. What they really cared about was, that they should be ruled by a Frenchman, and not by an Englishman. In fact, what was good for France was good for England too. It could only bring harm to Englishmen, that thousands of them should kill and be killed, in order to make Frenchmen obey a foreigner. They might win battles, and be talked of at home ; but they were sure to fail in the end. War is sometimes a duty ; but a war of this kind is wicked and ruinous. If Edward had been content to fight for the independence of Flanders, he would have been able to have ended his war by a peace which would probably have lasted a long time. By fighting for the crown of France, he engaged in a war which could not end till the English were driven out of France.

6. The Battle of Crecy and the Siege of Calais.—Edward's first victory was in a sea-fight at Sluys ; where 30,000 Frenchmen were slain or drowned. After a little time, he gained a still greater victory at Crecy. Just as the English at Senlac continued fighting on foot with axes, though the Normans had

long ago learned to fight on horseback,—so the French at Crecy (1346) continued to fight on horseback, after the English had learned to fight on foot with the bow, though the English knights and gentlemen still fought on horseback. The French indeed had a number of Genoese archers, but the French gentlemen on horseback despised every one who fought on foot. A shower came on, and wet the bow-strings of the Genoese archers, so that they were not ready to use their weapons. Philip VI. called out to his gentlemen, to ride in amongst these poor Genoese archers and to cut them down, as if they were mere useless lumber. The English bowmen kept their bows in cases till the rain was over. They were free men long accustomed to shoot strongly and steadily at the mark. Down went those gay and gallant French horsemen before the pitiless shower of arrows ; and the English knights charging amongst them completed the victory. The King's eldest son, the 'Black Prince' as he was called, bore himself nobly on that day, boy as he was. Once during the fight, some one, who saw him hard pressed, called on Edward to send him aid. 'No,' said Edward 'let the boy win his spurs.' The spurs were

the mark which distinguished the knights from the lower ranks, or from those who were only learning to fight. Not long after the battle of Crecy, Edward besieged Calais. He did not take it for eleven months. When there was no longer anything to eat in the town, the chief citizens came out to beg for mercy, with cords in their hands, to show that they were ready to be hanged. The king showed mercy to them, but he turned almost every Frenchman out of Calais, and filled it with Englishmen ; so that it remained an English town for more than 200 years.

7. **The Battle of Poitiers.**—Ten years after the battle of Crecy, the Black Prince won for himself another great victory at Poitiers. Philip VI. had died, and his son John was by that time King of France. He ordered his knights to charge up a lane at the end of which was the small army of the Black Prince ; but he did not know that there were English archers behind the hedges, on either side of the lane, till the arrows began to fly. As the horses were struck down, those behind fell over them as they lay on the ground in that narrow space. In a moment the proud French army was in confusion. The Black Prince

charged, and the victory was complete. King John himself was taken prisoner.

8. Chivalry.—It was the duty of a knight to fight bravely. It was also his duty, when the battle was over, to treat knights and gentlemen with gentleness and mercy. The word ‘Chivalry,’ which means that which befits a knight, is still used whenever a man who is strong employs his strength to help those who are weak ; more especially to help and protect a woman. After the battle the Prince led John to his own tent, and set him down to the dinner provided for himself. Then he stood behind his chair, and waited on him, like a servant. Conduct of this kind is the best thing of which we hear in those fierce days. Unfortunately gentleness was not shown to all alike. It was not thought at all necessary to treat kindly any one who was not a knight or a gentleman. The English used their strength to plunder and destroy. Poor French peasants had their cottages burnt, their little store of money carried off, their vine-trees cut down, their corn reaped or trodden under foot. On one occasion, some years later, a town named Limoges, in which the soldiers had refused to surrender, was given over to destruction by the Black Prince himself ; and the brave

warrior, who was usually so gentle, looked calmly on whilst old men and innocent citizens were brutally slain. In France a bitter hatred arose against the name of Englishman ; which



FRANCE AFTER THE PEACE OF BRETAGNY.

(The dotted space represents the Dominions of the King of France ; the space marked with lines represents the Dominions of the King of England.)

has only died out in our own time, after 500 years have passed away.

9. The Peace of Bretigny.—Even the better Englishmen themselves felt some shame for the misery they were causing. Once as

their army was marching amongst ruined crops and burnt cottages, the black clouds gathered thickly. The lightning flashed and the thunder pealed. To the English, it seemed as if the voice of God was heard in condemnation of their wickedness. Edward made peace with France. By the Treaty of Bretigny, a considerable part of France was to be his; and Frenchmen were to pay large sums of money to him.

10. The Labourers.—No one is ever the better for robbery. Englishmen had been in the habit of gaining riches by plunder ; and money which is got without hard work, is usually spent far too easily. The peace put an end to the chance of robbing Frenchmen; but it did not put an end to the expensive habits, which had come to all sorts of people in England. Instead of trying to live more quietly and less extravagantly, Englishmen now began to try to get as much as they could from their neighbours. There was one class of people who suffered much. For a long time the land had been cultivated, not by labourers working for a certain sum of money, but by serfs, or villeins, as they were then called. These villeins were men who had cottages, and lands of their own to culti-

vate. At one time they had not been badly off. As there was not much money in the country, many of them had paid rent not with money, but with work. They had done a certain number of days' work for their landlord, instead of giving him a certain number



KNIGHT OF GARTER.

GENTLEMAN.

CITIZEN.

of pounds or shillings. For some time, however, most of these villeins had paid money instead of working. It was now found, that the landlords who had come back from France, tried to make the villeins do more work than they had been accustomed to do; and even to

make those of them do work, who had not been obliged to work for many years. Besides these villeins, there were, in the time of Edward III., a great many free labourers, who worked for money as they do now. These, too, were hardly treated, and forced to work very hard for very little pay.

11. **The Black Death.**—Whilst the villeins and labourers were grumbling, a terrible disease swept over England. It was called the *Black Death*; and it caused more destruction than any plague which has since destroyed men. We cannot tell exactly how many died; but it is supposed by some, that at least one half of the people perished. This fearful death brought some hope to the serfs and labourers who remained alive. It is true that the rich died as well as the poor; but the land did not die. There was just as much work to be done as before,—just as much corn to be reaped or sheep to be shorn,—and only half as many reapers or shearers to do it. Instead of a master finding more men than he wanted, he could not find enough. The labourers naturally asked for more money than they had had before; and the villeins, finding their work was more wanted, were less inclined to give as much of it as they had given before. The

landlords, however, chose members of Parliament; and the villeins and labourers did not. The landlords, being in Parliament, made there what laws they pleased. One of the new laws made by them, was known as the *Statute of Labourers*. By it, any labourer was to be punished, who asked for more wages than he had had before the Black Death. No wonder the labourers were very angry at being cheated in this way. A preacher, named John Ball, went about telling them not only that they had a right to as much as their labour was worth, but that there ought to be no more landlords. He was always repeating two lines—

When Adam delved, and Eve span,
Who was then a gentleman ?

till the villeins and labourers were ready to do anything.

12. **The Last Days of Edward III.**—It was not only the labourers who were dissatisfied. War with France broke out again ; and the best leaders of the English were now dead. Edward III. lost his senses in his old age, and was unable either to fight or govern. The Black Prince was in ill-health. There was a new French King, Charles V., who was too prudent to fight great battles. Step by step, the

English lost most of the land they had in France. The English nobles thought it would be a fine thing to rob the clergy, as they could no longer rob the French; and the King's second son, called John of Gaunt,—that is to say, of Ghent, the town in Flanders where he had been born,—cried out loudly, that the clergy should have no more power in England; and began to turn them out of the offices which they held in the government. It seems strange, now, that all the offices in the state should be filled by the clergy; and that a bishop should be Lord Treasurer to look after the King's money, or Lord Chancellor to decide lawsuits. But in those days, no one, who was not a clergyman, knew enough to do anything which needed the exercise of a man's brains; and there was good sense enough still in England to remember this. The Black Prince, sick and wasted as he was, appeared in Parliament and declared against his brother. The 'Good Parliament,' as it was called, turned off some of John of Gaunt's friends who had been getting money by cheating the King and the nation, and put the bishops back into office. But the Black Prince did not live long enough to do more. When he died, John of Gaunt did again as he liked; and, soon after, Edward

III. died also. All the conquests of the early part of the reign had come to nothing; and Englishmen, who had set out to rob Frenchmen, were trying to rob one another. War-like glory, when it does not come from self-defence, or from an attempt to protect the weak against the strong, is like the apples which were once fabled to grow by the Dead Sea. Outwardly they were fair to look on; but they turned to dust and ashes in the mouth.

CHAPTER XIII.

(RICHARD II. 1377.)

1. **The Insurrection of the Peasants.**—The reign of Richard II. brought more trouble. He was the son of the Black Prince; and, though he was only ten years old, it was hoped that he would be like his father when he grew up. At first, England was ruled by his uncles, and chiefly by John of Gaunt. The war went on, but every year some French towns were lost; and the English armies, instead of bringing home spoil from abroad, cost much money. Heavy

taxes were laid on to pay the expense. If the poor had complained before of their hard treatment from the rich, they complained much more now. The tax-gatherers did not find it easy to collect the money. At last one



THE KING AND HIS COUNCIL.

of them went into the house of Wat Tyler, a Kentish man, and insulted his daughter. Wat Tyler killed the man. Thousands of villeins rose in rebellion. They asked that the new taxes should be put down, and that there should be no more bondage ; that is,

that no one should be obliged to work for his landlord without being paid. But they did not ask quietly and firmly. They were angry and ignorant ; and they did exactly what angry and ignorant men always do. They threw everything into confusion. They burnt the rolls of parchment on which was written the account of the services which they were bound to render to the landlords. They murdered the lawyers who had argued in the law courts that they were bound to render these services. A large body of them, with Wat Tyler at their head, at last reached London. Young Richard was only sixteen, but he rode boldly out to meet them. He promised to free them from bondage. Those to whom he spoke were satisfied, and many went home. But it is impossible to satisfy a whole mob. A yelling crowd rushed through the streets of London, seized on the Archbishop of Canterbury, and cut off his head. Others of the great lords were put to death in the same way. Young Richard was the only one in the court who was not frightened. Wat Tyler was in Smithfield, at the head of thousands of his followers. The boy-king rode up to meet him. Wat Tyler spoke threatening words, and Walworth, the Mayor

of London, slew him with his dagger. At once there was a shout for vengeance. Richard rode boldly forward. ‘I am your King. I will be your leader,’ he said. The peasants had no complaint to bring against the boy. They believed that he would free



THE BOY-KING RICHARD FACING WAT TYLER AND THE MOB.

them from bondage, as he promised once more to do. They went peaceably home as the others had done. Riots, however, and disturbances spread through the country. At last the gentlemen took heart and attacked the peasants. The poor men had no proper arms, no order, no knowledge of war. They were slaughtered in thousands. The King

was not allowed to fulfil his promises, even if he had wished to do so. The villeins were thrust back into bondage. They were called on to fulfil their task of unpaid work for their landlords ; and life seemed to them as hopeless as it had seemed before. But it was not long before better times came. The landlords found out that nothing was to be gained by making men work who did not want to work ; and gradually most of the villeins were set free. These freemen who worked willingly for pay, worked much harder than the villeins had done when they had been made to work for nothing.

2. John Wyclif.—The landlords had their way, however, for a little time. They had force on their side. There was one man in England, however, who had been, for some time, trying to teach men that there is something better than force. John Wyclif was a learned priest. He began by arguing against the power of the Pope in England. The Popes had long ceased to do any good to England ; and all that was known of them was, that they were always asking for English money, and trying to help their Italian friends by giving them Church offices in England. In the reigns of Edward III. and Richard II. laws

were made by the English Parliament to stop this. Wyclif argued against the Pope in this affair. Then he argued against the wealth and power of the clergy. Clergymen, he said,



SHIP, TIME OF RICHARD II.

ought to preach and visit the poor. Unless they did their duty they had no right to so much money. Wyclif translated the Bible; and sent out a number of men, called the 'Poor Priests,' to explain it to the people.

The great poet Chaucer, who lived at this time, is thought to have had Wyclif in his mind when he described a good priest, and told how he taught the doctrine of Christ and of His apostles, but followed it first himself. By-and-by Wyclif attacked some of the doctrines which were then believed in the Church. He found people of different kinds to support him. In the first place, there were those who learnt to believe what he taught. These people were called *Lollards*; from a word which means 'to sing,' just as if they had been called 'Psalm-singers.' In the second place, he was supported by great noblemen, who were very pleased to hear him say, that clergymen ought not to have money, unless they did their duty. What Wyclif meant was, that the clergymen ought to do their duty. What the great noblemen meant was, that they ought to take the clergymen's money away from them, without trying to make them do their duty. For some time Wyclif seemed to be prospering. But there were two things against him. Printing had not yet been invented, so that Bibles were very expensive, as each copy had to be written out; and even if poor people could have afforded to buy them, they had never been taught to read. Then again,

the great gentlemen had been frightened by the insurrection of the peasants. They had thought it a fine thing to take away the money of the clergymen because they did not do their duty, without really caring whether they did their duty or not. They had now found out, that the peasants could ask gentlemen whether they had been doing their duty, and whether they really cared for anything except for money and enjoyment. The consequence was, that they did not care to listen any longer to a man like Wyclif, and that they began to look upon him as a disturber of the peace. He was prevented from teaching at Oxford, and forced to go to his parish at Lutterworth, where he died not long after.

3. Richard II. and his Uncles.—The rest of the reign of Richard II. was taken up with a long struggle for power, between the King on the one side, and his uncles, supported by some of the great nobles, on the other. Richard, when he reached manhood, showed that he could sometimes be as cool and daring, as he had been on the day when he faced Wat Tyler and his mob. ‘Tell me,’ he suddenly said to his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester, ‘how old I am.’ ‘Your highness,’ was the answer, ‘is in your twenty-second year.’ ‘Then,’ said the

King, ‘I am surely of age to manage my own affairs,’ and he turned his uncles out of the council. But he did not know how to use the government when he had it. His only idea of being a King was, that it gave him plenty of money to spend. His uncles did



SOLDIER WITH HAND-GUN, FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

not know what to do with power, any better than he did. Sometimes they were strong enough to seize the government, and to put Richard’s chief counsellors to death. Sometimes he was strong enough to seize the government, and to put his chief opponents to death. He had one of his uncles, the Duke of

Gloucester, murdered ; and had another great nobleman, the Earl of Arundel, executed. He seemed to be completely master of England.

4. End of the Reign of Richard II.—At last, only two of the great noblemen who had been Richard's enemies, were left. One of these was Thomas Mowbray, Duke of Norfolk. The other was Henry of Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford, the son of John of Gaunt, and in this way Richard's first cousin. The King had pardoned them, but he was very well pleased to hear that they had quarrelled, and that they intended to settle the quarrel, as men did in those days, by fighting. The fight was to take place at Coventry, and Richard was there to see fair play. Just as they were going to begin, the King stopped the fight, and banished them both,—Mowbray for life, and Bolingbroke for ten years. As they had committed no crime proved against them in any court of law, this was most unjust. Before long, Richard acted more unjustly still. John of Gaunt died ; and Richard took possession of his lands, instead of allowing his son, the banished Bolingbroke, to have them. Honesty would have been a better policy. Every man in England who had any property at all, was afraid that, if he died, his son would be

treated in the same way. Bolingbroke understood how many friends Richard had made for him by this act of injustice. He sailed for England and landed in Yorkshire, asking only for his father's lands. Thousands flocked in to support him, and Richard was deserted. Henry then claimed the crown; and Richard, left without support, was obliged to give it up. He was thrown into prison. In those days there was but a short step, for Kings, from the prison to the grave; and, like his grandfather Edward II., Richard II. was murdered not long after his dethronement.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

(HENRY IV. 1399. HENRY V. 1413. HENRY VI. 1422.)

1. **Henry's Title to the Crown.**—Because Bolingbroke, who was now Henry IV., inherited the duchy of Lancaster from his father, John of Gaunt, the line of Kings of which he was the first is known as the House of Lancaster. Since the accession of Henry III., the custom had established itself, of placing on the throne the eldest son of the last King; or, if he died

in his father's lifetime, as the Black Prince had done, the eldest son of the eldest son. Still, though the habit of choosing for King that particular member of the royal family who was considered most fit for the office had gone out, Englishmen did not consider that the government of a country was to be looked on as belonging to a King, in the same way that a house or a field belonged to a man. They dethroned Edward II. and Richard II. because they governed badly. When Edward II. was dethroned, they put his eldest son in his place. Richard II. had no children. There was, however, an heir to the crown, nearer than Henry, by right of birth, in Roger Mortimer, Earl of March, who was the grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, a son of Edward III., older than John of Gaunt. Henry IV., therefore, reigned very much as John had reigned, not by right of birth, but because Parliament had allowed him to take the throne. For this reason, he was obliged to act more according to the wishes of Parliament, than the Kings before him had done ; because, if he did not, Parliament might dethrone him as it had dethroned Richard. In many ways this was a good thing. The King could no longer do as he pleased, as Richard had done, and could not

banish men, or take away their money or lands, without trial. But Parliaments are made of men ; and three or four hundred men can do things as wicked and evil as one man can.

2. Law made for the Burning of Heretics.—

At this time, the men who made up the Parliament were still frightened, lest there should be another rebellion of the peasants. The Lollards were still preaching against the doctrines believed by the Church ; and those who disbelieved the doctrines of the Church, were usually the same men who would have tried to free the serfs from working for the landlords without being paid for their labour, and who would have liked to do as much harm to the landlords as they could. Parliament, therefore, determined to try and put down the heretics,—as those were called who taught a belief which was different from that of the Church,—partly because they thought that heresy was doing harm, and partly because they were afraid lest the heretics should want to take away the property of the gentlemen. For the first time in English history, a law was made directing that heretics should be burnt alive. The bishops, and all religious persons, were convinced that any one who believed what was false in religion would suffer ever-

lasting torments, even if he made a mistake honestly ; and they therefore thought, that they were doing a charitable thing, in burning those who taught others to believe that which would bring such frightful consequences upon them.

3. **Rebellion against Henry IV.**—Henry's reign was a troubled one. The great nobles who had done much to place him on the throne, were not ready to obey him ; and he had to be always ready to fight in order to keep them down. One great house, that of the Percies, was particularly dangerous to him. The head of that house was the Earl of Northumberland. His lands were on the borders which separate England from Scotland. It was his business to see that no Scottish army, and no Scottish band of robbers, crossed the Tweed to burn English houses and to kill English men. It was therefore necessary, that he should have many armed men under his command ; and it was easy to employ these armed men against the King. He made friendship with the Scots ; and some of that nation, together with Owen Glendower, a powerful man in Wales, joined him in a rebellion. A great battle was fought at Shrewsbury, where the rebels were defeated, and Northumberland's son, Harry Hotspur,

was killed. Henry had not come to an end of his difficulties. Enemy after enemy opposed him, and he died a sad and worn-out man, after a reign of fourteen years.



KING RICHARD II. KNIGHTING HENRY OF MONMOUTH IN
IRELAND, 1399.

4. **Henry of Monmouth, Prince of Wales.**—His son, Henry of Monmouth, had been knighted by Richard II. before his father became King. He had fought bravely at the

battle of Shrewsbury. He was full of frolic; and there are stories about his wild conduct when he was amusing himself. It is said that he once threatened a judge named Gascoigne;



JUDGE GASCOIGNE.

and that Gascoigne sent him to prison. The story used to be believed that, when Henry became King, he praised Gascoigne for doing justice, though he had himself been the

sufferer. As, however, he really dismissed Gascoigne as soon as his father died, it is to be feared that he did not behave as well as has been supposed.

5. Henry V. makes War upon France.—The new King, Henry V., resolved to free himself from the difficulties which beset his government at home, by imitating Edward III. He thought that if a war was begun with the French, the nobles would follow him instead of rebelling against him. He therefore put forward a claim to the crown of France. As he was not the eldest descendant of Edward III., he had no claim which any law court in the world would have allowed; but it happened that the King of France, Charles VI., was out of his mind; and that his nobles were quarrelling with one another. He was therefore able to set out with more chance of success than Edward III. had done. He was himself a good and upright man in other matters, and a brave and able general. His army was a strong one; and Englishmen, who cared little whether the excuse for the war was good or not, were burning to revenge themselves upon the French, for having driven them out of the land in the former war.

6. Siege of Harfleur and Battle of Agin-

court.—In 1415, Henry landed, and took Harfleur, after a terrible siege. Sickness broke out in his army, and swept away thousands who did not fear the face of an enemy. In spite of this, he determined to march from



ARCHERS, FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

Harfleur to Calais, with the few men who remained to him. At Agincourt his way was barred by at least fifty thousand Frenchmen. Henry had, at the highest reckoning, but nine thousand men with him ; but he had no fear.

The battle was fought on October 25, the feast of Saint Crispin and Saint Crispian. The night before, the vigil of the feast, he overheard some one in his camp wishing, that a few thousands of the stout men who were idle in England, had been with them. ‘No,’ said the King, ‘I would not have one man more.’ These words of his have been put into poetry by Shakspere :—

No, my fair cousin :
 If we are marked to die, we are enough
 To do our country loss ; and if to live,
 The fewer men, the greater share of honour.
 God’s will ! I pray thee, wish not one man more.
 By Jove, I am not covetous for gold ;
 Nor care I who doth feed upon my cost ;

But, if it be a sin to covet honour,
 I am the most offending soul alive.
 No, faith, my coz, wish not a man from England.
 God’s peace ! I would not lose so great an honour,
 As one man more, methinks, would share from me,
 For the best hope I have. O, do not wish one more !

This day is called the feast of Crispian :
 He that outlives this day, and comes safe home,
 Will stand a tip-toe when this day is named,
 And rouse him at the name of Crispian.
 He that shall live this day, and see old age,
 Will yearly on the vigil feast his neighbours,
 And say—‘To-morrow is Saint Crispian ;’

Then will he strip his sleeve, and show his scars,
And say, 'These wounds I had on Crispin's day.'
Old men forget ; yet all shall be forgot,
But he'll remember with advantages
What feats he did that day. Then shall our names,
Familiar in their mouths as household words,—
Harry the king, Bedford and Exeter,
Warwick and Talbot, Salisbury and Gloster,—
Be in their flowing cups freshly remembered.
This story shall the good-man teach his son ;
And Crispin Crispian shall ne'er go by,
From this day to the ending of the world,
But we, in it, shall be rememberèd,—
We few, we happy few, we band of brothers ;
For he to-day that sheds his blood with me,
Shall be my brother ; be he ne'er so vile,
This day shall gentle his condition ;
And gentlemen in England now a-bed
Shall think themselves accursed they were not here ;
And hold their manhoods cheap whiles any speaks
That fought with us upon Saint Crispin's day.

The battle of the next day was Crecy over again. The French horsemen, splendid in their bright armour and their gorgeous array, charged down upon the little English host. The ground was wet with rain, and the horses laboured heavily in the deep mud, till they could move forward no longer. All the while the English bowmen poured their arrows, their cloth-yard shafts, amongst them ; and the English horsemen broke in

amongst them to finish their defeat. The ground was strewed with eleven thousand slain Frenchmen, amongst whom were the noblest of the great men of France.

7. **The Siege of Rouen.**—For the moment there was little to be done. The English army had been large enough to win a victory, but it was not large enough to conquer France. Henry returned to England. Two years later he came back to France. He took town after town. There was a long siege of Rouen. The townsmen were short of food ; and, in order that they might have all the food that was left for themselves, they thrust out of their gates twelve thousand men, women, and children, who had come in for shelter from the country round. Henry cruelly refused to let them pass. Day by day starvation carried off its wretched victims. Inside the town the misery was almost as great. At last, the townspeople were driven by mere famine to surrender ; and Henry had gained possession of a town the inhabitants of which hated him and his English.

8. **The last Years of Henry V.**—Henry cared not whether he was hated or not. The strong, brave, cruel man went on his victo-

rious course, little thinking that his evil deeds were preparing evil, if not for himself, for his children after him. Conquest was easy enough. The mad French King could neither command an army, nor rule a state. The French nobles were quarrelling with one another as bitterly as ever. Some years before, the most powerful of them,—the French King's cousin, the Duke of Burgundy,—had murdered the King's brother, the Duke of Orleans. Now, the friends of the Duke of Orleans, murdered the Duke of Burgundy ; and the young prince, the eldest son of the King, looked on with approval whilst the deed was being done. The new Duke of Burgundy joined Henry ; in order that he might take revenge for his father's murder. This gave Henry great advantage ; and before long a treaty was signed, by which Henry and his successors were to be Kings of France, as soon as King Charles died. It was also agreed, that Henry should marry the French King's daughter, Catharine. Not long afterwards Henry died ; and Charles soon followed him to the grave.

9. The English Rule in France.—The heir to all this bloodshed and glory was an infant, Henry VI. of England. The baby was

crowned King of France in Paris; and a great part of France submitted, because it could not help it. His uncle, the Duke of Bedford,—a brave and able man, the brother of the late King,—ruled the north of France in the name of his infant nephew. To the south of the Loire King Charles's son, known as Charles VII., was obeyed. The English, however, were winning town after town. At last they besieged Orleans. If that were taken, Charles would hardly be able to resist much longer. The English believed that they would soon have everything their own way. Happily, violence cannot last for ever. Armies might march backwards and forwards amidst blood and corpses for a time, as if the only object worth living for were to spread death and ruin amongst those whose only wish is to be at peace. The time was now coming when this blood should be required at their hands. The England of Henry V., like the England of Edward III., had been very strong because it was better governed, and because men lived better and happier lives in it, than elsewhere in Europe. But it had used its strength to oppress, and not to help, other nations. Therefore it was hated with a bitter hatred; a hatred which would make even the divided

French strong to resist. They waited but for a word to rouse them against their tyrants.

10. **Joan Darc.**—The word came, as it often does, when it was little looked for. Far away in Lorraine there was a young peasant girl, Joan Darc, known usually in England, by a curious mistake, as Joan of Arc. She was pure and simple, and utterly without learning. But she had a warm heart of pity ; and, as she saw around her the trampling of the English horsemen over the cornfields, and heard the tales of woe and agony which reached her from every side, her soft woman's breast was melted in pity for the realm of France. The words of hope which rose within her, seemed as though they came from without. She fancied that she heard angels' voices bidding her deliver her native land ; and telling her to go forth and not to rest till Orleans was saved from the English, and till Charles was crowned at Rheims, and anointed with the holy oil which, as was then believed, had come down from heaven. ‘I must go to the King,’ she said, ‘even if I wear my limbs to my very knees. I had far rather rest and spin by my mother’s side,—for this is no work of my choosing,—but I must go and do it, for my Lord wills it.’ Her father and

her friends tried in vain to hinder her. At last she persuaded a passing knight to take her to the King. ‘ My name,’ she said, when she was brought before him, ‘ is Joan the Maid. The Heavenly King sends me, to tell you that you shall be anointed and crowned in the city of Rheims ; and you shall be lieutenant of



JOAN DARC AT THE HEAD OF THE FRENCH TROOPS.

the Heavenly King, who is King of France.’ Charles had by this time lost all hope of gaining a victory by human means, and he let her do as she wished. A suit of armour was made for her, and, with a banner in her hand, she mounted her horse astride like a man. The ignorant soldiers believed that she was indeed sent

from heaven. They followed her where they would follow no one else. At her bidding they burst through the English army before Orleans, and entered the town in triumph.

11. *Capture and Death of Joan.*—From that moment the English lost all chance of conquering France. The French had hope again ; and hope gave them the courage which they had lost. The Maid marched to Rheims. There, in her presence, Charles received the crown of France. The Maid had done her work, and would gladly have gone back to her home ; but the French soldiers did not think that they could conquer without her, and persuaded her to stay. A baser feeling sprang up in the minds of the commanders. They did not like to hear all the praise given to the Maid and none to themselves. In the midst of a fight, they left her to be taken prisoner. The English who took her treated her shamefully. If the French soldiers believed her to be a saint, the English soldiers believed her to be a witch, who had defeated them with the help of the devil. They carried her to Rouen, and accused her of being a heretic, because she said that the voices, which had bidden her go forth, were sent by God. She was condemned to be burnt alive. She died declaring that the

voices *were* from God. The last word which she spoke amidst the flames was ‘Jesus.’ An English soldier who was looking on was struck with terror. ‘We are lost!’ he cried. ‘We have burnt a saint!’

12. The Loss of France.—The English cause was indeed lost. They had no longer to fight only against the gay French nobles, but against the whole French people. The Maid had been a peasant girl ; and the French people, who had been first in her thoughts, rose as one man against its oppressors. She had had, as she so often said, pity upon the realm of France. In thirty-one years after the death of Henry V., Calais was the only spot in France left to the English King.

13. Weakness of Henry VI.—The English King was Henry VI. Gentle and pious, but without strength or wisdom, he could not even keep England in order; far less recover France. His subjects were in that temper, which usually makes people who have done wrong, blame every one except themselves. They were displeased when the King married a French wife, Margaret of Anjou, and made peace with France. They were more rightly displeased when Henry, not knowing how to govern, let the affairs of the kingdom be

managed by men who used their power to enrich themselves. One of these men, the Duke of Suffolk, was particularly hated. He was accused of all sorts of crimes, and banished. As he was leaving England, he was dragged



KNIGHT, LADY, AND CHILD, TIME OF HENRY VI.

out of the ship in which he was, and murdered. As in the time of Richard II., the men of Kent were the first to rise. Putting Jack Cade at their head, they marched to London. Happily, during the years which had passed since Wat Tyler's rebellion, the

peasants had ceased to be serfs. They were now free men ; and there was no longer any complaint about bondage. Cade reached London ; but his men took to robbing, and he was himself soon after killed.

14. The Wars of the Roses.—Men who wanted better government, looked to one of the King's kinsmen, the Duke of York, to help them. He was descended from that Mortimer who came from Lionel, the son of Edward III., who was older than John of Gaunt, the King's great-grandfather. Nobody, however, at first wanted to make the Duke of York King. They merely wanted him to govern instead of the King's favourites. Before anything could be done, the King went mad ; and the lords in Parliament named the Duke of York Protector, or, as we should say, Regent. If Henry had remained mad for the rest of his life, the Duke of York might have gone on ruling in his name. Unfortunately, Henry was sometimes mad and sometimes sane ; and he was not much wiser when he was sane, than when he was mad. The first time he was better, he drove the Duke of York away from his presence. A war began, which is known as the 'Wars of the Roses;' because the House of Lancaster had a red rose for its

badge or mark, and the House of York a white one. There were many battles fought. Sometimes one side won, and sometimes the other. At last the Duke of York claimed to be King by right of birth. The Queen was terribly angry, as this would take away the right of her only son. At a great battle, at Wakefield, the Duke of York was defeated and slain. The Queen had his head cut off and put over the gate of York, with a paper crown placed in mockery upon it. He soon found an avenger in his eldest son, Edward. The King's party was defeated in a bloody battle at Towton ; and Edward became King as Edward IV.

CHAPTER XV.

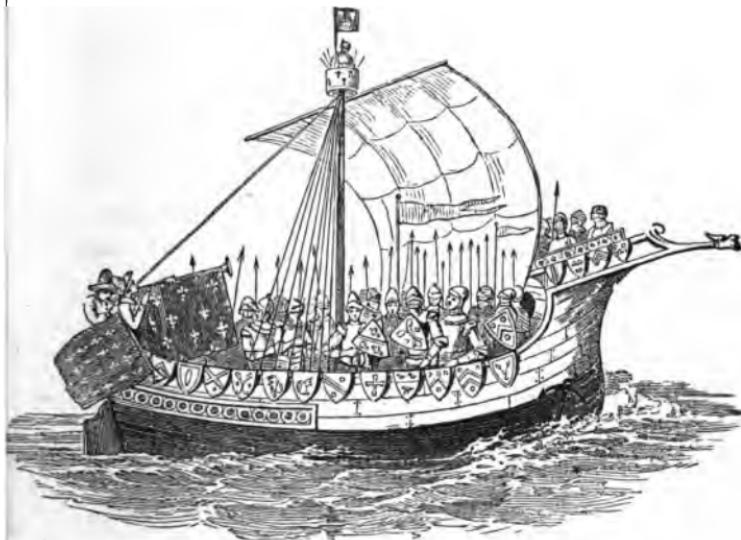
THE HOUSE OF YORK.

(EDWARD IV. 1461. EDWARD V. 1483. RICHARD III. 1483.)

1. **Edward IV. and the Barons.**—Edward IV. claimed the throne as the heir of an older son of Edward III. than the great-grandfather of Henry VI. had been ; but he had had other things besides his birth to help him. In the

first place, he was a much better soldier than any one who was on the Lancastrian side. In the second place, a very great number of people, who did not care whether the King were of one family or another, cared very much to have a King who could really govern and keep order. We are so used to see order kept, that it is hard for us to understand how difficult it was to do it in the time of the Wars of the Roses. A few policemen are quite enough to keep many thousands of people peaceable; because only a very few people now think of making a disturbance, if they do not get what they want at once. Nobody now is armed as a soldier, unless he wears the Queen's uniform, and is ready to obey the orders of the officers set over him by the Queen. In the time of Henry VI., the great lords had a large number of armed followers, who were usually ready to do anything that their lords told them to do. Whenever there was going to be any fighting, the lords gave out liveries, as they were called; which were what we should call soldiers' uniforms. The word *livery* means something delivered; and these liveries were coats delivered to the followers and bearing the lord's particular mark. Coats of this kind are still worn by footmen and coach-

men, and do not do anybody any harm. Then, when two or three thousand coats were seen about, with the bear and ragged staff worked on the front, people knew that the great Earl of Warwick—who had done so much



SHIP, FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

to help Edward IV. to the throne that he was known as the *King-maker*—was going to fight somebody. When they saw men with a particular kind of knot worked on their breasts, they knew that the Earl of Buckingham was going to fight somebody. Each great lord thus had a little army of his own to dispose of, and

was always ready to employ it. Peaceable persons, therefore, wished very much to have a King strong enough to put down all these little armies ; and they thought that a King like Edward, who could win the battle of Towton, was much more likely to be able to put them down, than a King like Henry VI., who was usually out of his mind.

2. The Barons and the Middle Classes.— If these great lords had contented themselves with marching about and fighting one another, it would have been bad enough. What was worse than this, was, that they used their men to hurt innocent people. A man who had displeased a great lord, was pretty sure to meet a band of ruffians. He would then be beaten or wounded ; and he would be very lucky if he was not actually killed. If a great man coveted a house belonging to some one else, he sent to take it. A certain John Paston, for instance, lived in Norfolk. One day, when he was in London, his wife looked out of a window, and saw about a thousand men in armour, with guns and bows. They brought with them ladders and long poles with hooks at the end, to pull the house down ; and pans with burning coals to set fire to it if they could not pull it down. They set to work,

first, to break down the supports of the room in which the lady was. They then made their way into the house ; dragged the lady out by force, broke open all the doors, and carried off everything they could find. These men were not common robbers. They were sent by a lord who unjustly claimed the house as his own. Many years afterwards, the son of this Paston was treated in much the same way. His wife was left at his house near Norwich, whilst he was away on business. This time the attack was made by a duke. He sent a little army to get for him what he wanted. The lady stood a siege, but was at last obliged to let the duke's men in. They destroyed the house entirely ; carrying off even the iron-work. To this day the ruins of the house are to be seen, to remind us what sort of things lords and dukes could do at the time of the Wars of the Roses.

3. Difficulties in the way of getting Justice.—The strangest thing is, that all these things were done while the courts of law sat as usual. Judges went round to hold the assizes, and juries gave verdicts just as they do now. We think it a very excellent thing that nobody can be punished unless twelve men, who make up a jury, agree in thinking

that he has really done what he is accused of. But that is because we know that, though the twelve men may sometimes make mistakes, they will at least try honestly to say what they really think. In the days of the Wars of the Roses, they did not try honestly to speak the truth. They were very often chosen to be jurymen, because they were friends or dependents of the great landowner of the neighbourhood. If they had to try one of the great man's friends, they would say that he was innocent, whether he were so or not. If they had to try one of the great man's enemies, they would say that he was guilty, whether he were so or not. Even if the jurymen wished to say what was true, they were often afraid to do so. A juryman who set himself against the wishes of the great man, would probably be waylaid on the way home, and soundly beaten.

4. Growing Power of the King.—It is easy to understand why Edward was popular. The gentlemen with small estates, the farmers and husbandmen, the shopkeepers of the town, all wanted a King who could keep order. They did not care much whether Parliament met often or not ; because the lords who ill-treated them at home, were very powerful in Parlia-

ment. From the time of Edward IV., therefore, the Kings began to be much stronger than they had been for a long time. A writer, living about a century before this, tells a story which will help us to understand the feeling of the people. He says that the mice met one day in council, to determine what was to be done to kill the cat, in order that they might live in safety. One little mouse, however, told them, that they were very foolish to wish to kill the cat. He said that he could not deny that the cat ate a good many mice, but she also destroyed a good many rats. If the rats were allowed to multiply, they would kill many more mice than one cat did. A King like Edward IV. was like the cat. The nobles were like the rats. The mass of the people were like the mice. They supported him because he kept the nobles in order.

5. Edward's Deposition and Restoration.—

After ten years, Edward forgot that he had need to be always on the watch to keep his power. He offended the Earl of Warwick, the King-maker ; who, great noble as he was, had helped him to the throne. Warwick was the most powerful of the nobles. In the kitchen of his house at Kenilworth a huge caldron was always on the fire. Any one

who pleased, might come in, and stick his fork into one of the pieces of meat boiling in it, and carry it off. The men who were thus fed at his expense, were always ready to fight for him. He now took Henry VI. out of prison, and made him King again. Edward fled across the sea. Queen Margaret came back to take her poor mad husband's part ; and even the Duke of Clarence, Edward's next brother, joined Warwick and married his daughter. Edward, however, was not a man lightly to abandon hope. He was soon back again in England with an army. At Barnet a battle was fought which settled Edward on the throne. Clarence basely deserted the side he had chosen, and returned to his brother. Warwick was killed ; Edward marched westward to Tewkesbury, and utterly defeated Margaret. After the battle was over, another Edward, the young son of Henry and Margaret, was brutally murdered. Not long afterwards, Henry VI. died in the Tower ; no doubt also murdered. In that long fierce struggle for power, justice and mercy were forgotten. Men said, afterwards, that these murders were committed by Edward's youngest brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester ; and it is very probable, though it is not quite certain, that what they said was true.

6. The Benevolences and the Printing-press.—For the rest of his life Edward reigned in peace. At least there was no more fighting. He ventured to do things which no King had done before. When he wanted money, instead of asking Parliament for it, he made the rich men give him what he called a *benevolence*.



THE KING COMING TO SEE CAXTON AND HIS PRINTING-PRESS.

This name was given to it because they were supposed to give it willingly, though, in reality, they were afraid to refuse. Once he asked a rich old lady for ten pounds. She told him that, as he was so good-looking, he should have twenty. He gave the old woman a kiss; and she then told him that she would give him forty. It was not often that money was given

him with such good will as this. There was plenty of grumbling, but few wished to resist the King, lest they should have the old misery back again. In this reign, Caxton brought into England the art of printing, which had been invented on the Continent. He set up the first printing-press at Westminster. The King and his courtiers came to wonder and applaud. They looked on as men look who watch a pretty toy. They little thought that they were watching the birth of a power which would one day be stronger than Kings and Parliaments together.

7. The End of the Reign of Edward IV.— Edward, even in his triumph, was not without his troubles. Victory had set the crown on his head ; and others began to look on the crown simply as a great prize, which might be won by fighting for it. His brother Clarence,—who had first helped Warwick against Edward, and then Edward against Warwick,—fancied, or was believed to fancy, that he might gain the crown for himself. He was imprisoned in the Tower, and there put to death. No one really knows how it was done, but it was afterwards reported that he was drowned in a cask of wine. Edward must have felt himself more lonely in the world

than ever. He knew that many of the great nobles hated him, and now his own brother had turned against him. He had tried pleasure in all its forms, and had lived a gay, dissolute life. Such a life, as is always the case, had been sweet to the taste at first, but in the end it was bitter as wormwood. Worn out in body and mind, he became sad and dispirited. At last he died, a worn-out but not an old man.

8. Edward V. and the Duke of Gloucester.

—When Edward IV. died, he left behind him two young sons, Edward and Richard ; and several daughters, the eldest of which was named Elizabeth. His widow, the mother of the children, was Elizabeth Woodville ; whom he had married, though she was not of any great family. He had shown much favour to her relations ; and the great nobles who had taken his side, were not well pleased to see men whom they despised honoured by the King. After Edward's death, there were many who wanted to prevent the Queen and her relations from having any power. At the head of these was the late King's brother, Richard, Duke of Gloucester. One of his shoulders was higher than the other, and his left arm was shrunk and withered ; but he

was, in other respects, a handsome man, as his brother had been. He was brave and warlike, a good captain, and a man who was much loved by those amongst whom he lived, as long as they did not try to do him any harm. But he had no mercy or pity for any one who tried to prevent him from doing anything that he wanted to do. Men, in those unhappy days, had grown used to cruelty and murder ; and Richard thought no more of killing those who stood in his way, than he would have thought of killing flies. Probably he had had to do with killing Edward, the son of Henry VI., and Henry VI. himself. Probably, too, he had had to do with putting his brother Clarence to death. When he heard that his brother Edward was dead, his first thought was to get the young princes out of the hands of their mother and her relations. He took with him his friend the Duke of Buckingham, and met the little King Edward V. as he was coming to London accompanied by his mother's brother, Lord Rivers, and by one of his half-brothers. He carried the boy with him, and ordered that the other two should be imprisoned. Not long afterwards, he had the two prisoners beheaded without any trial at all. Richard,

when he arrived in London, was named Protector, to rule in his nephew's name till he became a man.

9. The Duke of Gloucester, Protector.—The Queen was frightened. She had with her her second son, Richard, Duke of York ; and she fled with him to the Sanctuary at Westminster—a place in which criminals were allowed to take refuge, and from which they might not be taken against their will. One of Richard's greatest supporters had been Lord Hastings. Hastings was now tired of supporting him any longer ; and Richard determined to get rid of him. One morning the Protector appeared in the Council. ‘My lord,’ he said to the Bishop of Ely, ‘you have good strawberries in your garden at Holborn ; I pray you let us have a mess of them.’ He seemed to be in good humour. After a time he went out, and came back looking sullen and angry. He asked what punishment those deserved who contrived his death. Hastings answered that they deserved to die. Richard laid bare his withered arm. ‘That sorceress, my brother’s wife,’ he said, ‘and others with her, see how they have wasted my body by their sorcery and witchcraft.’ Those present knew that his arm had always been as

it was, and were much surprised. Yet they did not dare to say what they thought. ‘Certainly, my lord,’ said Hastings, ‘if they have done so heinously, they are worthy of heinous punishment.’ Richard pretended to fly into a rage. ‘What!’ he said; ‘dost thou answer me with “ifs” and “ands”? I tell thee they have done it; and that I will make good on thy body, traitor!’ He struck the table with his fist, and Richard’s men, who were standing outside, rushed into the room. He swore that he would not dine till Hastings was dead. Hastings was dragged out, and his head was cut off at once upon a log of timber lying outside.

10. The Duke of Gloucester becomes King Richard III.—Richard then made the queen give up her youngest son. He and his brother, the King, were lodged in the Tower of London. The Tower was not then a prison, as it afterwards became. It was a palace, in which the Kings lived when they wanted to be in safety from their enemies, behind its strong walls; whilst, when they had no fear, they lived at Westminster, in the palace which then stood where part of the Houses of Parliament stands now. Richard next spread a story, which was probably true, that the father of

the boys had promised to marry another lady before he married their mother. In those days, if a man promised to marry a woman and married somebody else instead, he was not considered to be properly married. Richard therefore said, that Edward IV. had never been properly married to the Queen ; so that



THE MURDER OF THE TWO YOUNG PRINCES IN THE TOWER.

his sons could not inherit the crown. He summoned a Parliament, which set aside the young princes, and declared their uncle to be King Richard III.

11. Murder of the Princes.—Richard had been allowed to place himself on the throne, for the same reason that Edward IV. had

been allowed to make himself King. The great mass of Englishmen wanted some one to keep order ; and they did not think that a child could keep order any better than a madman. But it was impossible that they should be very eager to support a man who had been so cruel ; and it was not long before he did a deed which was more cruel than anything that he had done before. The two boys in the Tower were not dangerous as long as they were boys ; because they were not old enough to govern. But they would soon be men ; and then every one, who had any quarrel with Richard, would be sure to take their part. Richard therefore determined that they should never grow up to be men. He employed Sir James Tyrell to get rid of the boys. Tyrell sent two men to do the wicked deed. These men went into the room where the children were asleep in bed, and smothered them with pillows. For many a year, no one knew where the bodies of the murdered princes were buried. At last, nearly two hundred years afterwards, some workmen found, at the foot of a staircase, two skeletons which, from their size, must have belonged to boys of the age of the two brothers.

12. Richard's Defeat and Death.—Richard

soon found out, that he had lost more than he had gained by his cruelty. A King was sure to make enemies amongst the great nobles ; and they could hope to be able to overthrow him, now that he had ceased to be popular. He disappointed the Duke of Buckingham, who had helped him to the Crown, by not giving him all the reward that he had promised him. He was still strong enough to overpower Buckingham ; and the duke was executed at Salisbury. A more powerful enemy than Buckingham came next. Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, was descended through his mother from John of Gaunt ; and, though no one of the House of Lancaster had any claim by right of birth to the throne, he thought that Richard's enemies would be sure to support him, whether he had any right or not. He set out from Brittany, where he was then living, and landed in Wales with a small force. By his father he was of Welsh descent, and he was therefore welcomed by the Welsh. One Welshman had sworn to Richard that, if Henry came, he should not land except over his body. He meant, that he would fight till he died, rather than allow it ; but, when Henry appeared, he could not find it in his heart to resist a man who was of a Welsh

family ; and, in order to keep his promise literally, he laid himself down on the beach, and let Henry step over him. Henry found no more resistance than this for some time. He had not a large army, but neither had Richard. The two rivals met at Bosworth in Leicestershire. Richard had no chance of winning ; for, in the middle of the battle, Lord Stanley with all his men deserted to Henry ; and the Earl of Northumberland, who had also come to fight for Richard, looked on without fighting at all. Richard knew that he was lost ; and, like a brave man as he was, he plunged into the midst of his enemies, striking out manfully till he was slain. Sir William Stanley, Lord Stanley's brother, picked up his battered crown and placed it on Henry's head. From that day Henry ruled England as Henry VII.

ANALYSIS
OF THE
OUTLINE OF ENGLISH HISTORY.
WITH NOTES.

CHAPTER I.

ANCIENT BRITONS.—*a.* Lived in small tribes under chiefs or kings. *b.* Could not read. *c.* Kept cattle, hunted, fished. *d.* Made baskets and pottery. *e.* Grew barley &c. in S.E. *f.* Mined for tin in Cornwall. *g.* Less civilised in centre and north, and only partially clothed in skins.

Religion.—Heathen; called *Druidism*. Priests called *Druids*. Worshipped Sun, Moon &c. Oak and mistletoe sacred.

British Remains.
a. Cromlechs. *b.* Pottery, coins &c. found in tombs. *c.* Temples (supposed), as Stonehenge.

ROMANS.—First arrival, under Julius Cæsar, B.C. 55. Under Aulus Plautius, A.D. 43. Conquered South Britain. Built towns (Chester, Bath &c.) Made roads (*strata* or *streets*: hence names Stratton, Stratford &c.) Formed camps (*castra*: hence names Lancaster, Chester &c.) Did not destroy Britons, but improved their laws, houses, agriculture, mining &c. Introduced Christianity. Kept peace.

Roman soldiers withdrawn, 410. South Britain invaded by *Picts* from north of Clyde, and *Scots* from Ireland.

er-on'lech (*-leck*): a burial place formed by laying a | **Med-i-ter-ra'ne-an** (*middle of the land*): the sea between flagstone across others. Europe and Africa.

con'quered : overcame; vanquished.	mis'sion-a'ry : one sent on a mission, as to preach.
Chester-le-Street , in Durham, at one time a bishop's see.	do-min'i-on : <i>lordship</i> ; territory of a <i>lord</i> or ruler. [L. <i>dominus</i> , a lord.]
Stratton , in Cornwall.	
Stratford , on Avon in Warwickshire.	frontier : that part of a country which <i>fronts</i> another; the boundary between two countries.
fort-i-fi-ca'tions : strong buildings for defence.	

CHAPTER II.

THE ENGLISH.—Came from about the Elbe in Germany; were of three tribes,—*Angles*, *Saxons*, and *Jutes*; spoke Low German (much like Dutch); were hardy sailors, but addicted to plundering.

Religion.—Heathen; taught them to be brave, not merciful. Worshipped *Woden* (war god); *Thor* (storm god); *Frea* (goddess of fruitfulness) &c. [Wednesday is *Woden's-day*; Thursday, *Thor's-day*; Friday, *Frea's-day*.]

English Conquest.—Some *Jutes* under Hengist and Horsa landed in Thanet in 449, and formed Kingdom of Kent. Later some *Saxons* founded Kingdoms of Sussex (S. Saxons), Wessex (W. Saxons), Essex (E. Saxons) and Middlesex (Middle Saxons). *Angles* founded Northumbria (N. of Humber), East Anglia (Norfolk, Suffolk &c.), and Mercia (midland counties).

As a rule the English slew or drove out the Britons; pulled down dwellings and churches, and rooted out Christianity. By year 600, they had conquered all to the E. of Pennine and Mendip Hills.

Social Life.—Two grades in society, besides slaves—*earls* and *freemen*; each family in separate homestead. The tribesmen met to judge criminals, and to make war and peace. Soon after their arrival in England, the tribes had Kings at their head, to lead in battle and preside over the assembly of the tribe.

Treatment of Criminals.—Whilst the English were in Germany, murder was avenged by relative of murdered person; afterwards (to avoid blood-feuds) compensation was made in money. Personal injury, robbery &c. were compensated by family to family. Accused persons were condemned or ac-

quitted by oath of family or neighbours (*compurgation*) ; or, if they failed to get compurgators, they were tried by *ordeal* (walking blindfold over red-hot ploughshares; dipping hand in boiling water).

de-scend'ed, *pp.* : come down ;
derived.
de-stroy'ed : unbuilt ; ruined.
sep'a-rate-ly : apart ; one-by-one.
né-ces-sa-ry (*nes-*) :¹ needful ;
requisite.
con'quer-or : a victor ; one who
conquers.
com-mit'ted : did ; perpetrated.
com-pur-ga'tion : act of *purg-*

ing from charge of crime by
testimony of others.
crim'i-nal, *n.* : one guilty of
crime.
or'de-al : *a dealing out* ; judg-
ment.
char'ac-ter : quality ; reputa-
tion.
sur-prise', *n.* : wonder ; as-
tonishment.

CHAPTER III.

Conversion of English.—Augustine came from Rome by order of Pope Gregory, 597. Converted *Ethelbert*, King of Kent ; founded church at Canterbury, and was made archbishop. Christianity spread over south from Canterbury. North converted by *Pauli'nus* from Canterbury, and *Aidan*, who came from Iona, and settled in Holy Island.

al-le-lu'jah (*-ya*), or *alleluia* :
a Hebrew word meaning
'Praise ye Jehovah.'

cath'e-dral : a church in which
a bishop has a *seat* or throne.

arch-bish'op (*arch*—chief :
bishop—overseer) : a bishop
over other bishops ; a pri-
mate.

Chris-ti-an'i-ty : the religion
taught by Christ.
zeal'ous-ly : with *zeal* ; earn-
estly.
quar'rel-ing : disputing an-
grily.
venge'ance : return of injuries ;
retribution.
mon-as-te-ry : a home for monks.

CHAPTER IV.

Union of England.—The kings of the Jutes, Angles and Saxons often quarrelled and fought with each other ; the weaker

¹ The accent (') placed over a vowel, indicates a short, or close syllable. If the first syllable of *necessary* included the *c*, it would have to be pro-nounced 'neck.'

164 OUTLINE OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

conquered by the stronger. Egbert of Wessex conquered the others, and became overlord of England, 827. Some of the conquered states still had kings and laws of their own; but they were not allowed to fight with each other.

Danish Invasions.—Danes (or Northmen) from Denmark and Norway began to plunder east coast, and to form settlements; this led to constant fighting and partial return of barbarism. Alfred, grandson of Egbert, for a time driven from his throne, took refuge in Athelney; defeated Danes at Ethandune, and by *Treaty of Wedmore* [878] gave them land to north-east of line from London to Chester. [*-by* in names of places indicates Danish settlements,—as Grimsby, Kirby.]

Alfred's Government.—Having settled with the Danes, he tried to improve his country:—1. Formed a navy. 2. Translated books and brought in foreign scholars to instruct his people. 3. Collected and improved the laws. 4. Encouraged foreign trade.

Submission of Danes.—Kings after Alfred (Edward, Athelstan, Edmund, Edred), gradually won the north from the Danes. *England re-united* and at peace, 954.

per-pet'u-al-iy: without ceasing.	the Con'ti-nent: the mainland of Europe.
rev'er-enc'd: honoured; respected.	suc-ceed'ed: followed in order; came after.
chal'ice: a cup; especially a communion cup	dis-cov'ered: saw; found out.
jew'elled: adorned with jewels.	trans-la'ted: carried over; expressed the same sense in another language.
	gov'ern-ment: rule; control.

CHAPTER V.

Edgar 'The Peaceful;' committed government to Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, who kept peace between Danes and English, and allowed each their own laws; loved books, music &c.; promoted education; supported the monks.

Ethelred 'The Unready;' arrival of fresh Danes; king bribed instead of fighting them,—*Dane-geld*; arrival of *Svegen*; Wessex overrun; London captured by Canute; flight of Ethelred to Normandy; **Edmund** 'Iron-sides' forced Canute to give up South-eastern half of kingdom; death of Edmund, and election of Canute, 1016.

Canute allowed English their own laws; kept peace between them and Danes; was gentle and just; succeeded by his sons, who were brutal men and bad kings. On their death, Danes and English elected Edward, son of Ethelred, 1042.

chron'i-cle: a record of events in order of time.

civ'il-ised: *made citizens;* reclaimed from savage state.

peace'a-bly: quietly; without quarrelling.

ed-u-ca'tion: *act of bringing out;* training; instruction.

mar'tyr: *a witness;* one who dies as a witness.

right'eous-ness: state of *rightness;* uprightness.

vig'or-ous: strong and active; energetic.

a-pos'tle: *one sent off;* a messenger; a missionary.

realm: kingdom; what is *reigned over.*

pi'e-ty: devoutness; religiousness.

ac-com'pa-nied: attended; joined.

CHAPTER VI.

THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

The Normans, of same race as Danes; part of France about Seine seized by *Rollo* in 912; called Normandy; Normans learnt to speak French; dukes did *homage* to French king; more civilised than English; land divided among nobles (knights) who did homage to duke; *knights had absolute power over peasants.*

Serfdom in England.—Since time of Alfred some English freemen had become serfs, or villeins, but they were protected from ill-treatment; if accused, might bring compurgators (Chapter II.)

Edward 'The Confessor,' more Norman than English; filled offices with Normans; French spoken at court; English angry, rose under *Godwin*, earl of Wessex, and drove out Normans. On Godwin's death his son, Harold, ruled in Edward's name; after Edward's death Harold was elected king, 1066.

Invasions.—*Harold Hardrada*, a Norwegian king, invaded north of England, was defeated and slain at Stamford Bridge.

William, duke of Normandy, claimed throne, landed at Pevensey, defeated and slew Harold at Senlac, near Hastings, and was crowned king, 1066.

166 OUTLINE OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

suc'ces'sor: one who follows, or comes after.	com-purg'a-tors: those who joined to <i>purge</i> or clear a man from the charge of crime by their testimony.
ac'know'ledged: confessed <i>knowledge of</i> ; owned.	econ'se-cra-ted: made <i>sacred</i> ; set apart for special use.
phrase: a part of a sentence; expression.	Nor-we'gi-an: belonging to Norway.
hom'age: service of a vassal to his lord, or the promise to be his man (L. <i>hom-o</i> , a man).	des'o-la-ted: <i>made lonely</i> ; laid waste.
in-tel'li-gent: having <i>intellect</i> ; discerning; well-informed.	pal'i-sade: a fence or row of <i>pales</i> (stakes).

CHAPTER VII.

THE NORMANS.

William I., 1066-1087.

Henry I., 1100-1135.

William II., 1087-1100.

Stephen, 1135-1154.

WILLIAM I. '*The Conqueror*' (1066); loved order; made all obey him; harsh and cruel if opposed; treated English who opposed him, as rebels; gave their lands to Normans; Normans supported him through fear of English,—English through fear of Norman barons; William allowed none to have much land in one county; built castles in towns; allowed none to rob or murder, but himself.

Feudal System.—Conquered lands *belonged to king*, were divided among retainers on condition of military service; barons and tenants did homage for lands.

Domesday Book gave list of landowners, account of lands, and payments or service due to king.

William's Cruelty.—Laid waste Vale of York to protect southern England from Danes and Scots; destroyed houses in New Forest, Hants, to fit it for hunting purposes.

WILLIAM II. '*The Red*' (1087), second son of William I.; able and energetic, but unjust and cruel; English, in fear of barons, supported him. Kept sees vacant, and collected revenues; during illness, made Anselm archbishop; Anselm opposed king and was banished; king killed in New Forest.

HENRY I. '*The Scholar*' (1100); third son of William I.; brought up as an *English* prince, married an *English* wife, de-

pended on *English* support against his elder brother Robert. Kept barons down; took Normandy from Robert. Ruled justly but sternly; taxed heavily. Died 1135.

stark: *stiff*; unbending; stern.
abbacy: office of an abbot.
forfeit-ed: lost by misdeeds.
tyrant: *master*; a harsh ruler.
schemes: plans; designs.
trai'tor: one who betrays; one guilty of treason.
fer'tile (-til): bearing; fruitful.
dev-as-ta'tion: act of laying waste.
pas'sion-ate-ly: intensely.
cov'e-tous-ness: avarice; greediness.
ob'sta-ble: hindrance.

in-sur-rec'tion: revolt; rebellion.
des'pe-rate-ly: hopelessly; recklessly.
ir-res'o-lute: undecided; wavering.
con'sci-ence: *self-knowledge*; sense of right and wrong.
re-mon'strance: argument against; expostulation.
cro'sier: a bishop's *crook* or staff.
ré-con-ciled (rek-): restored to friendship.
ty-ran-ny: oppression; harsh rule.

CHAPTER VIII.

STEPHEN, son of Adela, daughter of William I. (1135); chosen in preference to Matilda, daughter of Henry I.; well-disposed, but weak; crown claimed by Matilda; civil war and anarchy; barons built castles, and oppressed people; tortured and imprisoned them to extort money; starved thousands.

Angevin or Plantagenet Kings.

Henry II., 1154-1189.	Edward I., 1272-1307.
Richard I., 1189-1199.	Edward II., 1307-1327.
John, 1199-1216.	Edward III., 1327-1377.
Henry III., 1216-1272.	Richard II., 1377-1399.

HENRY II., son of Matilda, first king of *Angevin* or *Plantagenet* line (1154); strong and energetic; introduced reforms; pulled down castles and restored order; substituted money payment for military service; allowed small land-owners to carry arms. Established regular *assizes* and *juries*.

Quarrel with Church.—Criminal clergymen were tried by church courts and not properly punished; Henry wanted to have them tried in civil courts; Archbishop Becket opposed this; was accused of embezzlement; fled to France; allowed to return, again offended Henry; murdered by four knights:

168 OUTLINE OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

this led to a rebellion; Henry did penance, satisfying the people; and gave up his claims over the clergy.

Conquest of Ireland begun. [Completed by Elizabeth.] By inheritance and marriage Henry ruled all the west of France. Succeeded by his son Richard, 1189.

ac-cus'tomed to go: in the habit of going.

rap'ine (-in): robbery; plunder.

ju-di-cial (-dish-): pertaining to courts of law.

as-si'zes: periodical courts held by judges in counties.

ex-pense: cost; outlay.

chan'cel-lor: president of a court or of a department of the state.

bú-si-ness (biz-): what makes one *busy*; employment.

ex-trav'a-gant: *wandering beyond* bounds; wasteful.

trump'e-ry *pretext*: worth-

less pretence; a made-up charge.

am-bi-tious (-bish-): desirous of power or advancement.

tur'bu-lent: *full of commotion*; unruly; disorderly.

ap-proach'ing: coming near.

de-barred': *barred out*; excluded; hindered.

pro-ceed'ed: *pp. gone forward*; issued.

re-bel'li-on: act of rebelling; revolt.

per-suade': *advise thoroughly*; convince.

op-po-si-tion: *act of placing against*; resistance.

CHAPTER IX.

RICHARD I. (1189) bold and daring; a good soldier; a bad king; quarrelsome and overbearing to his equals.

Crusades.—*Wars of the Cross*; undertaken to wrest Jerusalem from Turks; begun in time of William II., through preaching of *Peter the Hermit*. Jerusalem captured by 1st crusade; retaken by Turks in time of Henry II. Richard joined King of France and Duke of Austria in 3rd crusade, but quarrelled with both of them; defeated Turks, but failed to take Jerusalem. Taken prisoner in Austria; surrendered to Emperor Henry VI.; ransomed by English. Killed during invasion of France, 1199.

JOHN chosen king in preference to an elder brother's son,—**Arthur**; John was wicked, selfish, mean, cruel, deceitful. Imprisoned and murdered Arthur; called to account by Philip, King of France, he refused to attend; Philip seized his French lands north of the Loire.

Quarrel with Pope.—Against John's wishes, pope made Stephen Langton Archbishop of Canterbury; John refused to admit him; pope laid England under an *Interdict* (church bells silent, dead unburied); then excommunicated and deposed John; as the French were about to invade England and the English were turning against him, John submitted, and held his kingdom under the pope.

Magna Carta.—Langton became champion of English liberties; was supported by barons; drew up a charter of liberties, and compelled John to sign it, 1215. *Its main provisions* were (1) Free and prompt justice to all; (2) Security of person and property against illegal seizure; (3) Control of taxation by the Great Council of all the king's tenants in chief [except for three *aids*, namely,—at knighting of king's eldest son, marriage of his eldest daughter, or for ransom of king's person].

Death of King.—John then got pope to annul charter, and hired mercenaries to make war on his subjects; they called in Lewis, son of King of France, to help; but just then John died, 1216.

cru'ci-fied: put to death on a cross.

mas'sa-cre (-ker): general slaughter.

Bouillon (*Boolyong'*¹): duchy and city of Belgium.

de-ter-mined: set bounds to; resolved; made up his mind.

oc'cu-pied: seized; taken up; covered.

ac-com'plished: completed; effected; achieved.

re'cog-nised: known again.

ran'somed: redeemed; freed by purchase.

ra-pa'cious: grasping; greedy.

dis-ap-pear'ed: vanished; died in an unknown way.

mer'cen-a ries: soldiers who fight merely for hire.

ar-bit-ra'tion: umpireship; friendly settlement.

dis-ap-point'ed: balked; frustrated.

bap'tism: rite of dipping or sprinkling with water.

ma-lif-cious: full of malice; spiteful.

ex-com-mu'ni-cate: to put out of communion; to expel from the church.

leg'ate: a papal ambassador.

dis-pos-ses sed: put out of possession; deprived.

out'lawed: deprived of the benefit of law.

prin'ci-ple: a truth; a rule; a law.

principal: chief.

sys'tem: orderly arrangement.

ne-ces'si-ty: need.

¹ Very slight sound of 'g.'

CHAPTER X.

HENRY III.—Eldest son of John, 1216; nine years old; Pembroke regent. Henry was mild, but weak and extravagant; broke his promises; promoted foreigners. Great Council began to be called '*Parliament*'; consisted at beginning of reign of barons, bishops and abbots,—no *Commons*. King's extravagance &c. provoked barons to resist. Simon de Montfort, king's brother-in-law, their leader. *Provisions of Oxford* placed supreme power in hands of Councils; barons jealous of Montfort; great towns supported him; battle of Lewes (1264). Capture of king and prince Edward; Montfort ruler. *Origin of Commons*.—Montfort summoned to parliament two knights for each county (as had occasionally been done earlier in the reign), and two representatives for each borough; increased jealousy of barons; escape of Prince Edward, battle of Evesham and death of Montfort; king restored; his death, 1272.

be-gin'ning, *n.*: commencement; *pr.p.* commencing.
pre-fér'red: chose rather; thought it better to have.
con-temp'ti-ble: deserving scorn; despicable.
for-eign'er: a native of another country. [O. Fr. *forain*: alien; strange. The 'g' is an intruder.]
par'li-a-ment: speaking; a meeting for conference.
dis-sat'i-sac-tion: discontent; displeasure.
squa-n'dered: spent lavishly; wasted.
pro-vi-sions (of Oxford): regu-

lations providing for future government.
un-pop'u-lar: disliked by the people.
ági-ta-tion: commotion; violent movement.
com-mer'cial: belonging to trade or traffic.
sur-ren'dered: gave up.
po-lit'i-cal: relating to *polity* or state government.
sug-gest'ed: proposed; hinted.
Eve'sham [locally *Ee'sham*]: a town on Avon, in Worcestershire.
mu'ti-la-ted: deprived of members; cut in pieces.

CHAPTER XI.

EDWARD I. (1272), a strong and wise ruler, a great law-giver; controlled barons; gave offices to Englishmen. In 1295 summoned the first complete parliament, that of Simon de Montfort not having been summoned by a king.

Tried to bring all Britain under his government; conquered and annexed Wales; was acknowledged lord-paramount of Scotland,

and made umpire to settle rival claims to crown; declared for John Balliol; required that Scotch law-appeals should be heard before him; Scots rebelled and were defeated; Balliol deposed; insurrection under Wallace, expulsion of English; Edward invaded Scotland, defeated Wallace; Wallace betrayed and executed. Rebellion under Robert Bruce, defeat of Scots; Edward started for Scotland, but died at Burgh-on-Sands, near Carlisle, 1307.

coun'sel-lors: those who give
counsel; advisers.

coun'cil-lors; members of a
council.

com-pet'i-tors: those who compete; rivals.

de-ci-sion: act of deciding; determination.

sov'e-reign: supreme ruler; monarch.

angels a-scend'ing &c. (a reference to Gen. xxviii. 10-12); ascending = climbing up; descending = climbing down. [Both accented on first syllable when they come together.]

pro'phe-sied: v. foretold.

pro'phe-cy: n. prediction.

ac-ces'sion: coming to.

in'fa-mous: of bad fame; notoriously vile.

rep-re-sent'a-tive: one who represents others; a deputy.

sep'a-ra-tion: dividing; withdrawing.

au-da'ci-ous: daring; bold; impudent.

Dum-fries' (-frees'): a town and border county of Scotland.

right'eous: just; upright.

in-dig-na'tion: anger; displeasure.

de-struc'tion: act of pulling down; overthrow; death.

CHAPTER XII.

EDWARD II. (1307), son of Edward I.; weak, frivolous, devoted to pleasure, left government to favourites.

Scotch War continued by Bruce, while king quarrelled with barons; English driven out of all Scotland except Stirling Castle; king invaded Scotland, defeated at Bannockburn, 1314. Independence of Scotland.

Insurrection of barons; Piers Gaveston (king's favourite) beheaded; king's wife joined barons; king deposed and murdered.

EDWARD III., eldest son of Edward II. (1327).

Hundred Years' War.—King of France wanted Gascony from English; interfered in Scotch wars; English feared he would

stop their wool trade with Flanders. Edward declared war, and claimed French crown, on ground that his mother was sister of late king, whilst present king (Philip VI.) was late king's cousin. French said no man could rule by right of his mother. Battles of Sluys (Flanders, now part of Belgium), Crecy (1346). Siege of Calais; Poitiers (1356), King John (son of Philip) taken prisoner. **Peace of Bretigny**,—Edward renounced claim to French throne, but held large districts in France and was to receive large sums of money.

The Labourers.—Two kinds, both harshly treated :—

(1) *Villeins* (or serfs) who worked for a lord without wages, and were bound to the soil (could not leave their lord); were allowed a little land for themselves.

(2) *Free Labourers*, who worked for wages, and were not bound to the soil. Wages were very low.

The Black Death.—Half the people perished; great demand for labour; labourers asked more wages; landlords reduced free labourers to villeinage, and passed *Statute of Labourers*, making demand for higher wages illegal; insurrection of labourers under John Ball.

New war with France, loss of French possessions. Death of king, 1377.

quar' rel-ing: disagreeing; disputing violently; fighting.

gar'ri-son: soldiers guarding a fortress.

brilliant: glittering; splendid.

en'e-mies: foes.

Bor-deaux' (-dō): a city on the Garonne.

prob'a-bly: most likely.

Gen'o-e: belonging to Genoa in Italy.

be-sieged': laid siege to; beset with forces.

oc-ca'sion: occurrence; particular time.

Lim'-oges' (*Lim-ōzh*).

Bre-tigny (-teen'-ye).

ex-trav'a-gant-ly: wastefully; expensively; lavishly.

dis-ease': *want of ease*; sickness; ailment.

dis-sat'-is-fied: discontented.

Gaunt: '*Ghent*.' The English spelling gives (roughly) the French pronunciation.

CHAPTER XIII.

RICHARD II. succeeded his grandfather, Edward III., his father, the **Black Prince**, being dead, 1377.

Peasants' Revolt.—French war went on unsuccessfully, cost much money, involved new taxation, increased discontent of labourers; insurrection under Wat Tyler, for purpose of putting

down new taxes and villeinage; king at first promised them redress; some of them, not satisfied, committed murders &c.; king met them at Smithfield; Tyler killed, rebels dispersed on promise of freedom; thousands of them were hanged, and the rest kept in bondage.

John Wyclif, a learned priest, argued against authority of pope in England, and against the luxury and laziness of clergy; he translated the Bible into English and wrote many tracts; his followers called *Lollards*. He died at Lutterworth in Leicestershire.

King absolute; killed his uncle Gloucester and other nobles; banished his cousin Henry Hereford (son of Gaunt) and the Duke of Norfolk; when Gaunt died, he seized his estates. Hereford returned to demand his estates, was welcomed by the nobles; Richard was dethroned, and Hereford (Bolingbroke) made king as Henry IV., 1399.

peace'a-ble: disposed to peace;
quiet.

peace'a-bly: quietly; without
tumult.

dis-turb'-ance: *agitation*; tu-
mult.

slaugh'tered: killed like cattle;
slain without resistance.

vil'lein : a serf attached to a
villa or farm; a farm ser-
vant. [Same word as *vil-
lain*, but used in old sense.]

peasant (*pez-*): a *countryman*;
farm labourer. [Fr. *pai-
sant*.]

CHAPTER XIV.

THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

Henry IV., 1399-1413.

Henry VI., 1422-1461.

Henry V., 1413-1422.

HENRY IV., first king of House of Lancaster (see genealogical Table, p. 176), his title founded on Act of Parliament; he therefore had to submit to parliament.

Burning of Lollards.—Nobles feared Lollards because they favoured freedom of serfs; tried to put them down, passed a law ordering them to be burnt,—first such law in England.

Rebellion.—Nobles who placed Henry on throne were dissatisfied with him; the Welsh, under Glendower, wanted independence. Percy, Earl of Northumberland, made league with Scots and Welsh to rise against king; rebels defeated at Shrewsbury. Other rebellions followed, Henry died a worn-out man in 1413.

HENRY V., son of Henry IV., succeeded. Strong, brave, cruel. French assisted rebels in previous reign; Henry V. revived claim of Edward III. and made war on France. Captured Harfleur; totally routed French at Agincourt; conquered Normandy; the Burgundians joined Henry in revenge for murder of their duke by French. **Treaty of Troyes**,—Henry to be regent of France at once; to marry Catherine, Charles's daughter; and to be king when Charles died. Henry's death, 1422.

HENRY VI., infant son of Henry V., succeeded. Gentle, pious, without strength or wisdom. His uncle the Duke of Bedford, regent in France; conquest continued, Orleans besieged; siege raised by *Joan Darc*; Charles crowned at Rheims; Joan captured and burnt; English driven out of France, Calais excepted; great discontent in England; Duke of Suffolk (king's minister) murdered; insurrection in Kent under Jack Cade, Cade executed; king mad; Duke of York regent; York displaced by king.

Wars of Roses.—York claimed crown; civil war; York defeated and killed at Wakefield; his son Edward defeated royalists at Towton, and became Edward IV. 1461.

doctr'ine: a thing taught; an article of belief.
be-liev'ed: accepted as true.
her'e-sy: an opinion opposed to the usual belief.
char'it-a-ble: *loving*; kind.
par-tic'u-lar-ly: especially.
de-scend'ant: *one who descends*; offspring.
me-thinks': it seems to me.

fam-il'iar: well-known; common.
re-mem'bered: recalled to memory; kept in mind.
gor'geous: showy; splendid.
realm: kingdom.
lieu'ten-ant (*lev-*): one holding the place of another in his absence; a deputy.
in tri'umph: rejoicing for victory.

CHAPTER XV.

HOUSE OF YORK.

Edward IV., 1461-1483.

Richard III., 1483-1485.

Edward V., 1483.

EDWARD IV., first king of House of York; a brave, able soldier; but too fond of pleasure. Wars of the Roses weakened the barons and strengthened the king, so that he was able to protect the farmers, labourers and shopkeepers from the barons; more popular with middle and lower classes than with barons;

king offended Warwick, the *Kingmaker*, the most powerful of barons; who restored Henry VI.; Edward fled to Flanders; returned with an army, defeated and slew Warwick at Barnet; overcame Margaret at Tewkesbury; sent Henry VI. to the Tower, where he was murdered.

Benevolences.—Edward ruled almost without parliament; got money by confiscating estates of those who had fought against him, and by requiring rich men to give him *benevolences*.

Printing.—William Caxton set up a printing-press in Westminster, 1476.

EDWARD V. succeeded his father in 1483; his uncle, Richard Duke of Gloucester, made protector; Richard put to death Lord Rivers (king's mother's brother) and Lord Hastings (minister to Edward IV.); sent king and his brother to Tower; got parliament to set them aside and make him king; then had the princes murdered.

RICHARD III., 1483; brave and warlike, but cruel; slightly deformed; his cruelty made him unpopular; Duke of Buckingham (who had helped him to throne) formed plot to place Henry Earl of Richmond on the throne (see Genealogical Table); plot defeated and Buckingham executed. Richmond made a second attempt, landed at Milford Haven; defeated and slew Richard at Bosworth in Leicestershire, 1485. Richmond crowned on the field as Henry VII. It was arranged that he should marry Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV. This 'Union of the Roses' put an end to the civil war.

u'ni-form: likeness of dress, by which soldiers, policemen &c. are known.

de-pend'ent: one who *depends* on, or is supported by another.

be-nev'o-lence: *good-will*; an arbitrary tax represented as a free gift.

di-spir'it-ed: disheartened; discouraged.

de-spised: *looked down upon*; scorned.

sor'cer-ess: an enchantress; a witch.

sur-prised: *taken unawares*; amazed.

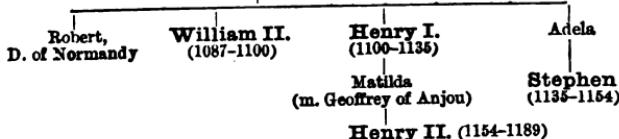
hei'rous (hā-): very wicked; grievous.

skel'e-ton: the bony framework of a body.

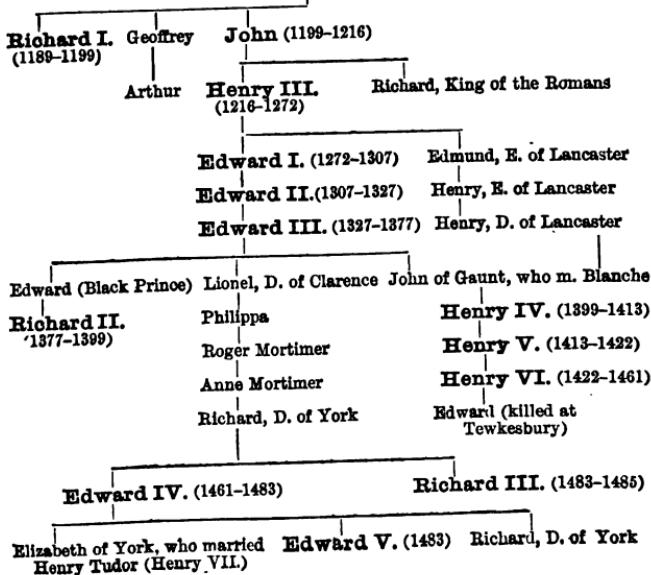
lit'er-al-ly: according to the *letter*, but not according to the meaning originally understood.

'ifs' and 'ands.' 'And' or 'an,' as used here, is a Scandinavian conjunction of the same meaning as 'if.' See Matt. xxiv. 48.

GENEALOGICAL TABLES.

NORMAN LINE.WILLIAM I. (1066-1087)ANGEVIN, OR PLANTAGENET LINE.HENRY II.

(Sprung both from William the Conqueror and from Edmund Ironside)



SOVEREIGNS OF ENGLAND.

FROM 1066 TO 1485.

NORMAN LINE.

William I. 'The Conqueror'	1066
William II. second son of William I.	1087
Henry I. third son of William I.	1100
Stephen, son of Adela, daughter of William I.	1135

ANGEVIN, OR PLANTAGENET LINE.

Henry II. grandson of Henry I.	1154
Richard I. son of Henry II.	1189
John, son of Henry II.	1199
Henry III. son of John	1216
Edward I. son of Henry III.	1272
Edward II. son of Edward I.	1307
Edward III. son of Edward II.	1327
Richard II. grandson of Edward III.	1377

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

Henry IV. grandson of Edward III.	1399
Henry V. son of Henry IV.	1413
Henry VI. son of Henry V.	1422

HOUSE OF YORK.

Edward IV. (See Table opposite)	1461
Edward V. son of Edward IV.	1483
Richard III. brother of Edward IV.	1483-5

N.B. The pupil need not commit to memory all the dates in the next page; but they will be found useful for reference, and will help to fix events in the memory in their correct order and connection. Battles appear among Important Events, because they have often decided the after-course of History.

REFERENCE TABLE OF IMPORTANT DATES.

Cæsar landed in Britain, B.C.	55
Claudius invaded Britain,	
	A.D. 43
Boadicea defeated	61
Romans left Britain	410
Arrival of English	449
Arrival of Augustine	597
Egbert, King of Wessex	802
Treaty of Wedmore	878
Canute, King of all England	1016-1035
Edward the Confessor King	1042-1066
Battle of Senlac	Oct. 1066
Doomsday-Book finished	1086
First Crusade (William II.)	1096
Charter of Liberties (Henry I.)	1100
Battle of the Standard	1138
Constitutions of Clarendon	1164
Murder of Thomas Becket	1170
Conquest of Ireland	1172
John a vassal of Rome	1213
The Great Charter	1215
Linen weaving introduced	1253
THE BARONS' WAR.	
Battle of Lewes	1264
Battle of Evesham	1265
First admission of borough members to Parliament	1265
Conquest of Wales	1282
Temporary Conquest of Scotland	1296
Confirmation of Charters (Edward I.) A.D. 1297	
Battle of Bannockburn	1314
Cloth weaving at Norwich	1331
HUNDRED YEARS' WAR (1337-1453).	
Battle of Sluys	1340
Battle of Crecy	1346
Siege of Calais	1347
Battle of Poitiers	1356
Battle of Agincourt	1415
English expelled	1453
Peasant Revolt (Wat Tyler)	1381
John Wyclif, Reformer	1324-1384
Geoffrey Chaucer, Poet	1328-1400
Battle of Shrewsbury	1408
Jack Cade's Insurrection	1450
WARS OF THE ROSES (1455-1485).	
Battle of St. Albans	1455
Battle of Bloreheath	1459
Battle of Northampton	1460
Battle of Wakefield	1460
Battle of Mortimer's Cross	1461
Battle of St. Albans	1461
Battle of Towton	1461
Battle of Barnet	1471
Battle of Tewkesbury	1471
Battle of Bosworth	1485
Printing introduced by Caxton	1471

ENGLISH HISTORY READING-BOOKS.

A New Series, designed primarily for the use of Elementary Schools, in accordance with the provisions of Article 16 (b) and Schedule I. of the Code for 1882.

STANDARD II.

OLD STORIES from BRITISH HISTORY. By F. YORK POWELL, M.A. With 19 Woodcuts, price 6d.

STANDARD III.

ALFRED the GREAT and WILLIAM the CONQUEROR. By F. YORK POWELL, M.A. With 9 Woodcuts, price 8d.

FIRST SERIES.

Without Annotations or other Aids.

STANDARD IV.

OUTLINES of ENGLISH HISTORY from B.C. 55 to A.D. 1603. By S. R. GARDINER. With 47 Woodcuts and Maps, price 1s.

STANDARD V.

OUTLINES of ENGLISH HISTORY. Second Period, from 1603-1880. By S. R. GARDINER. With 40 Woodcuts and Maps, 1s. 6d. 'A capital epitome for children of superior intelligence.' GUARDIAN.

STANDARD VI.

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHIES. By S. R. GARDINER. [In preparation.]

STANDARD VII.

The ENGLISH CITIZEN and the ENGLISH STATE. By F. YORK POWELL, M.A. [In preparation.]

ALTERNATIVE SERIES.

In larger type and on thicker paper. With Vocabularies, Annotations and Analyses.

STANDARD IV.

ILLUSTRATED ENGLISH HISTORY. PART I. From B.C. 55 to A.D. 1485. By S. R. GARDINER. Price 1s.

STANDARD V.

ILLUSTRATED ENGLISH HISTORY. PART II. From 1485 to 1689. By S. R. GARDINER. 1s. 8d.

STANDARD VI.

ILLUSTRATED ENGLISH HISTORY. PART III. From 1689 to 1880. By S. R. GARDINER. 1s. 6d.

London, LONGMANS & CO.

'Dr. GARDINER's *Outlines of English History* is a thoroughly trustworthy and, at the same time, eminently readable introduction to the study of the history of our islands. It begins with the discovery of Britain by the Romans, and ends with the formation of the present Ministry in 1880. Dr. GARDINER divides English history into two periods—the first ending with the death of ELIZABETH, the second taking up the story with the accession of the STUARTS, and continuing it to the present day. The events brought prominently forward in each of these periods are those which have acted in developing the future of the country and of the people. Thus the flashy achievements of

chivalry, or dazzling displays of pageantry, which the authors of histories for the young too often take to be the only parts of history that can be made intelligible to the immature minds of their readers, are touched on lightly or not at all. Dr. GARDINER has also found space for many enlivening anecdotes and famous sayings. His book is, moreover, embellished with several maps and numerous excellent illustrations. The type is clear, and not too small; so that it is well suited for the object which the Author tells us he had in view in writing it—to wit, to supply a reading-book for children's use which shall awaken in their minds an interest in their country's history.'

SATURDAY REVIEW.

